VOL. XXI JANUARY, 1939 NO. 5

THE PHI DELTA KAPPAN

A Journal for the Promotion of Research, Service and Leadership in Education

Safety Education

PUBLISHED BY PHI DELTA KAPPA, A PROFESSIONAL FRATERNITY

THE PHI DELTA KAPPAN

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THE PHI DELTA KAPPAN is published monthly, September to May, inclusive, by The Ovid Bell Press, Inc., 1201-5 Bluff Street, Fulton, Missouri, for Phi Delta Kappa, a professional fraternity in education. Editorial and executive offices of Phi Delta Kappa are located at 2034 Ridge Road, Homewood, Illinois.

The magazine is mailed to all members of the fraternity who are in good standing by reason of payment of the current membership fees, and to others on the basis of a subscription fee of $2.00 per year. Current and back numbers may be purchased at 35c per copy while available, except that special issues will be sold at 50c per copy.

Entered as second-class matter at the post office at Fulton, Missouri, under the Act of Aug. 24, 1912.

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THE PHI DELTA KAPPAN

VOL. XXI JANUARY, 1939 No. 5

Editorial Comment

RESEARCH IN SAFETY EDUCATION

THE most accurate thing that can be said about research in safety education is: "It would be nice if we had some." A few years ago the National Conservation Bureau published several excellent studies. A number of investigations have been made of the characteristics of good and bad drivers. The N.E.A. Research Division has made a general survey of classroom methods in safety instruction. Numerous statistical reports exist as to the extent and types of accidents. With these beginnings, objectivity in safety education ceases. We are still some distance from a comprehensive instructional program in the field.

Yet safety education is going on to some degree in most elementary and secondary schools. The instructional materials (except in several notable instances) have been prepared by special interest groups. Most of the available pamphlets, posters, bulletins, lantern slides, and motion pictures are based upon two ideas: (1) fear is the quickest and most effective way to teach people to avoid danger; (2) the acquisition of isolated factual information leads to intelligent action. While both of these principles are still used in modern education, they are recognized as incomplete and far from adequate.

What needs to be done? The first step is administrative rather than research in nature. Superintendents, principals, and teachers must publicly recognize the need for safety instruction and deliberately guide the movement in channels acceptable to modern educational theory and practice. The special interest groups have done two things well: (1) they have made the public aware of the need for safety; (2) they have compiled information which may be used in instruction. The situation now needs to be shot through with the interest, enthusiasm, and technic of the professional educator.

Research workers have four problems ahead of them.

(1) To help teachers and administrators select the "wheat from the chaff" of existing instructional materials in safety. While many of the special interest groups have a social purpose behind their efforts, most of them have little idea of what schools can use effectively. It will not be easy to select the more useful materials until some experimental work has been carried on. However, a beginning can be made in eliminating materials which are obviously sensational, crude, and stupid in terms of educational criteria.

(2) To define more clearly the areas in which safety instruction needs to be and can be made more effective. The existing statistics as to the time, place, and type of accidents are wholly inadequate for educational purposes. The national statistics are too general; specific local studies, too few in number. The program of safety instruction in every school system and each school unit must be adjusted to the conditions peculiar to the locality. If adequate surveys are made the present national bias toward "traffic safety" will be replaced by proper emphasis in terms of local needs and conditions.

(3) To experiment with instructional methods and materials observing particularly the effect upon individual learners. Safety education, like character education, is plagued with promoters of panaceas. Great emphasis is placed upon the alleged effectiveness of mass methods. While mass methods (posters, campaigns, slogans, etc.) have reduced accidents in the occupational field, the general approach has two generally recognized limitations: (1) there is a point of diminishing returns where campaigns are no longer effective; (2) mass methods tend to be transitory and must be repeated periodically (as the Red Queen said to Alice, "It takes all the running you can do to keep in the same place.").

Particular attention should be directed to the problem of developing programs of positive experiences containing the maximum of lifelike elements. Much that we attempt to teach now is negative ("look out," "don't run," etc.). Too much of our present emphasis is upon memorizing isolated facts rather than encouraging pupils to use the process of reasoning from facts, to develop group codes of conduct, and to utilize the social gallery in the enforcement of acceptable behavior.

(4) To develop methods for evaluating safety instruction. At the present time there are a few paper-pencil tests of safety information and several standardized methods for testing ability to operate a car. Statistics of accidents also indicate to some extent the effectiveness of safety education (they also measure progress in engineering and law enforcement). Part of the problem is to adjust existing physical tests to the safety situation, for example, tests of visual defects, reaction time, hearing, etc. Tests of proneness to accidents need to be developed—not exclusively in the driver training field as at present. Further explorations need to be made in the field of the attitudes and emotions as related to accidents. While we may never expect to reach the test-tube stage in evaluation, at least we must move beyond the present low ebb of measurement in safety education.

It is to be hoped that research in safety education (on the instructional side) will keep constantly in touch with classroom conditions and (on the side of objectives and content) devote its attention to real environmental and behavior patterns. Safety education, like instruction in most fields, will be effective when it is an integral and natural part of appropriate experiences. Even those aspects which may be given special attention (first aid, driver training, etc.) should be adjusted to the interests and needs of individuals who are living adventurously in specific social situations.

FRANK W. HUBBARD.

STATE-WIDE PLANNING

EDUCATION must be in the thick of the safety campaign, if the war on accidents is to be won. It cannot trail the advancements being made in legislation, engineering, manufacturing, and enforcement, if permanent gains on these fronts are to be guaranteed. It must do more than supply the technical science upon which these forces depend, indispensable as that contribution is. Its obligations to the young learners it serves require that safety have a definite place in the educational program.

To accomplish its purposes, education must not overlook the environment in which children live today. It dare not ignore the educational implications of a death toll of thirty-six thousand lives and more than a million injured in highway accidents each year. It requires no stretch of the imagination to see how safety education touches the achievement of self-realization, human relationships, economic efficiency, and civic responsibility.

Safety must be taken out of the realm of the dramatic and made an integral part of the educational program, if the schools are to have an opportunity to function properly in this area. From the public this implies the will to provide the funds necessary to establish and maintain an adequate program, do the necessary research, train the personnel and supply the equipment and teaching materials needed; to provide the legal services required; to disapprove of legislative prescriptions as to the curriculum; and to bring the understandings and cooperation which insure the development of a further program.

The task facing the schools and colleges is technical and professional. It is not simple. There are no answers in the back of the book. New blueprints are required. It is not easy to develop the procedures for translating knowledges and skills into performance; build programs in which there are so many uncontrollable elements; develop the work on secondary and teacher-education levels; and work in conjunction with all the agencies interested in promoting the cause of safety through their own particular patterns, usually in the form of contests.

Accent on state-wide planning for safety education is highly desirable and the opportunities for it are unlimited. Not to see them is stupid; not to take advantage of them is to lack leadership. Cooperation between public groups and the school forces is essential for carrying out the peculiar functions of each group and for creating the understandings to which to gear these programs. Such cooperation would include other interested organizations as well as public groups. Some examples from experience in our state are listed in the following paragraphs.

There would have been no state course of study in safety in 1932 had not the Iowa Department of the American Legion come to the rescue of the department of public instruction with funds with which to print our first curriculum bulletin in safety. The department prepared the teaching helps with the aid of an advisory committee of representatives of groups interested in safety and the counsel of Miss Marian Telford of the National Safety Council. Through the cooperation of the Legion this course of study was made available to our schools. It set the pace for our safety education program in that it met the need for classroom helps. It is one thing to talk about safety on the platform and another thing to do the careful unpretentious work in the schoolroom.

There would have been no workshop in driver education held at Iowa State Teachers College during the last week of January, 1938, had not the department of public instruction accepted the cooperation extended by the American Automobile Association in providing the faculty and equipment for this short course. F. R. Noffsinger and Amos E. Neyhart proved to be experts. The Iowa State Teachers College made local arrangements and a number of school districts made it possible for a member of the high school faculty to enroll for the course.

That is not all of the story. There would have been no teaching units available to our high schools as the result of this workshop had not the state motor vehicle department provided the printing funds. As it is, all high schools in our state which are pioneering in behind-the-wheel driving have teaching units to guide them as a result of the cooperation which made this conference and the printing of the bulletin possible. H. K. Bennett and A. J. Steffey of the department of public instruction did the editorial work in connection with these teaching units.

Still other examples of the values and opportunities for state-wide planning may be cited. A new course of study in safety, based on our motor vehicle code, is in press. It will consist of two sections. The first one will deal with problems and exercises relating to the Iowa motor vehicle code. It has been prepared by John W. Charles of Iowa State Teachers College and H. K. Bennett of the department of public instruction. The second part will deal with common traffic problems. It has been prepared by H. W. Carmichael, supervisor of trade and industrial education, and Edward J. Murray, superintendent of drivers license division of the motor vehicle department. This course of study was sponsored by the education committee of the Iowa State Safety Council. This education committee consists of groups of representatives of our schools and colleges both public and private. The bulletin is being printed through the courtesy of Robert O'Brian, secretary of state, and Lew Wallace, commissioner. Through such state-wide planning as this in which all great interests of the group is involved, fresh and usable materials are being constantly made available to our schools.

Some legal questions arise which need interpretation. A circular entitled "Interpretation and Outline of Statutes Governing Transportation, Transportation Vehicles, and Their Construction, Equipment, Lighting, and Safe Operation in Transporting Pupils to and from Public Schools" was prepared by Fred L. Mahannah, deputy superintendent of public instruction. The motor vehicle department cooperated in furnishing printed plates on the lighting of motor vehicles and gave assistance in reviewing the manuscript. The attorney general's office verified the construction of certain legal provisions.

A short course in driver education has also been given in the summer session of Iowa State Teachers College. A. R. Lauer has been helpful in connection with these activities on this campus. The Iowa State Safety Council and the department of public instruction and the motor vehicle department participated. The Iowa State Safety Council includes organizations such as the Iowa Congress of Parents and Teachers and other groups, the members of which are interested in the problem of safety.

The cooperation of the various agencies interested in this problem includes also the radio stations and the press. They have been very generous with their time and space. The whole procedure begets public confidence. If educators step in and assume their proper role and work with interested groups, there should be no ill-advised legislation and the place of each agency will be respected. These are just a few of the high spots which prove to us that there is everything to gain and nothing to lose through cooperation.

AGNES SAMUELSON.

SAFETY EDUCATION IN A CITY SCHOOL SYSTEM

OUR SCHOOLS are very close to the everyday life of our people and any considerable change in our social organization will be reflected almost immediately in our schools. If there is war, the schools are affected; if there is widespread poverty, they are affected; and if there is serious readjustment of our economic system, they are likewise affected. One-fifth of our population is enrolled in our schools and all our people are vitally concerned with them. They are the foundation of our plan of government.

In nearly every community, questions are continuously being raised concerning the extent and the nature of public education. Each community is reaching conclusions and making decisions, wisely or unwisely, concerning the problems of education. Since the local communities largely control education, there will of course be considerable variation in public schools throughout our country. In the main, however, the people of this country want good schools and accept the thesis that they are the first essential of our plan of government.

In education we have at all times the problem of evaluation. Constructive and vigorous thinking about the purposes and methods in education will be the potential means of improving it. Vague statements that the schools are "poor," are "not doing what they should," are "good," are of little value in making the schools better. Schools are "good" or "poor" in proportion to to their effectiveness in assisting the people of the community to adjust themselves to the social needs of their time.

The educational system in this country has developed through the varying force of what people have thought they wanted. It cannot be otherwise in a democracy. It must be based on what people require to satisfy their common characteristics, needs, and desires. We are all participants in a common life and this participation is an essential condition for the enrichment of experience. Participation covers a very wide range of activities. Most of these activities are all social, in that they arise through relations with other people.

A school is a place where the stage is well set—through the use of the properties, the equipment, the course of study—by the teacher so that the pupils, the actors, may get the maximum of training in presenting their play to the audience—their immediate social world. They learn to read, to use numbers, to get along with each other, to sew, to cook, to produce music, to draw, and to do many other things that people must do.

There must be a great deal of "doing" in education. We attain "ordering" of thought through "ordering" of action. We learn to write by writing, to draw by drawing, to be good citizens by practice in citizenship, and to acquire confidence by succeeding in some specific action.

If these statements are accepted, then it all becomes rather simple, doesn't it? All we have to do to get our courses of study is to decide what it is that people want in this life, what they want to know, what they want to be, what they want to be able to do—and we have the answers. We can begin with ourselves in our search. An examination of the newspapers will show that people want—higher wages, security in employment, security in old age, recreational facilities—golf, tennis, horse racing, boating, football—music, good government, safety, peace, and so on. Reduced to simple statements, people want: (1) social and economic security; (2) freedom and security in their right to work, to create, to do something worth doing; (3) a friendly government that they can understand and trust; (4) assurance of the continuance of these guaranties for their children.

Safety education is an essential part of the program of teaching in any complete school. In so far as we can discover, there has always been some teaching of safety in our schools. The earliest American schools taught something of the hazards of fire, water, the Indians, and the dangers of diseases. As our society has increased in complexity, the need for safety teaching has increased enormously.

I suppose that there will always be accidents. We cannot anticipate all that the individual will do under all circumstances and we cannot give a child practice in all the situations that are likely to occur. Safety teaching is largely just that—providing situations which afford the individual practice in meeting those hazardous situations that are most likely to occur. Of course, we must realize the limits of this sort of teaching. For example, it would not be wise to have all children jump from a fifth-story window into a fire net on the presump-

tion that some time they might be confronted with a situation which called for such a procedure. Our training is intended to teach children how to conduct themselves so that they may avoid such extreme situations.

Education is in no sense the mere acquisition of a fund of knowledge; the habits a child forms, his attitudes toward life, and his happiness are regarded by modern education as of far more importance. Education is concerned especially with the whole child and his relationship with others. Our schools are organized to furnish the child with a succession of educative life experiences and guide him through them so that he may acquire power in self-direction. The educated person will have acquired power in many directions. It is not quite enough to have the power to do a certain thing in life; the individual must also have a realization of that power. He must through practice acquire the power to meet certain social situations and also have a confidence in his ability to meet them. The same thing is true with respect to physical and moral situations.

The citizenship implications of teaching safety should not be overlooked. The child can be made conscious of his personal responsibility for safety not only for himself but for others as well. He can be led to see that safety is a cooperative enterprise, and that the welfare of each individual in the group is closely linked with the welfare of the whole group.

Safety education undertakes, through the guidance and exercise of children, mentally and physically, to establish ideals and standards of living which, through inculcated habits, may produce good citizens, the good leaders and wise followers of tomorrow. CHARLES H. LAKE.

A COLLEGE VIEWPOINT ON SAFETY EDUCATION

IT WOULD be generally agreed by many people that publicly supported education from the kindergarten through the graduate school has for its objective the fitting of the student to play his role effectively in a society of free men. At the university level few of the school's obligations to society and to the students in particular can be discharged unless the students are protected and helped to develop sound bodies and habits that affect constructively not only their mental and physical well-being and safety while on the campus, but also their health and safety throughout life.

Doubtless there is no subject in which parents are more interested today than in the safety of their children. Parents are profoundly concerned. Certainly one of the things the wise parent investigates is the safety program of the college.

It has been said that students of college age are excessively daring and reckless. Others have said that they are merely adventurous. Basically, most of us will agree that in their behavior they are eager for the social approval of their fellows, and at the same time they are away from a very important sustaining force in their protection and safety, namely, their parents. Therefore, the college students' safety problem, summarized, is to make their college experiences thrillingly safe and to help them become intelligently self-directing in regard to their own safety and that of others both while on the campus and in later life.

Safety education of the college student will add impetus to the crusade to end the many and varied sacrifices which are involved in accidents. The increasing activities of safety groups throughout the world are refreshingly free from politics and racial prejudice. The humanitarian and economic zeal behind the movement is a universal language that is beginning to be heard in the remotest home in the remotest city. Public safety cannot be stamped into human consciousness. The ideal must grow with increased understanding and education. Man is the key to the problem. The sure road to safety lies in persistent personal education. Public safety is achieved through individual responsibility. It is by no means as easy to teach safety to the public at large as it is to those in school. The college must begin where the secondary schools end.

The safety movement is relatively recent and there is some tendency for schools to lag behind the general advance of social needs. The colleges and universities represent the crown of the public school system and as such should vitalize both by precept and example the safe way of life. It is the duty of the university to ensure that every student understands the fundamental philosophy of the safety movement, has access to an environment that is free from unnecessary hazards, and has adequate safety instruction and supervision. The university's work cannot be carried on in a cloistered unawareness of the busy, practical world. It must be con-

cerned with adjustment to present and future adventures of its students.

On the other hand, if the safety education is to be a mere dabbling in generalities and a few statistics with regard to safety that may be desired, then the work is sub-collegiate, uninteresting, and ineffective, and is too narrow in application to have much value. In fact, it would not be an addition to that which the students already know and can apply.

Wide administrative and faculty cooperation and planning are essential to the development of a successful safety program in the colleges and universities. The many and varied problems in daily living which confront the students now and undoubtedly in later life, are a direct challenge to every faculty to analyze the present curriculum for its safety teaching content, to decide to what extent this curriculum meets the student needs and to what extent the curriculum should be expanded.

At present, perhaps, on the college level a safety coordinator on a full-time basis selected by administrative personnel, to help individual faculty members discover the rich but often latent safety teaching content in his subject, and to articulate this with student needs, interests and abilities, is the most effective way to inaugurate a program of curriculum construction in safety education. For schools which cannot effectively meet their safety problems by the above method, which has evident limitations, special elective or required safety courses could be organized and taught. In any case all aspects of the student's safety should be considered.

Among other things, special emphasis needs to be given to safety in all forms of physical education, including intramural athletics, intercollegiate athletics, and all elective and required physical activities. The individual, both as a spectator and as a participant, needs to be considered.

Experiences in university laboratories and shops in chemistry, physics, home economics, manual arts, and agriculture have shown the need for more definite and adequate safety instruction and supervision.

There is need for safety education for special occasions such as student gatherings, class tours and excursions, fraternity initiation weeks, class battles, recreational pursuits, and similar student activities.

Teaching the technique of automobile driving is another avenue for safety education. The college student has reached the legal age for a driver's license. A large percentage of those who do drive do it poorly. Others do not know at all how to drive and have had no opportunity to learn. Almost all of them should have the opportunity to learn better the worthwhile things they are reasonably sure to do in life. An elective course in driver training and education would meet an outstanding safety need of many students.

Agricultural and engineering colleges are beginning to give special courses in safety, for it has proved to be important that this objective should be given explicit attention. Where the vocational motive is prominent in the university's organization and activity, emphasis upon safety from the job analysis point of view can and should be given.

The increased emphasis on first aid and safety is one developmental trend in the teaching of college hygiene as recently expressed by instructors in courses in informational hygiene in Indiana colleges and universities. It has become increasingly evident that progress in health education is of little or no avail without corresponding progress toward the goal of safety protection and education of students.

Life of a college campus can offer students unusual lessons in safety, quite apart from classroom work. It can instill a spirit of individual responsibility and cooperation for safety within the student body, a necessary goal for worthwhile citizenship.

The responsibility of a college for safety does not end with intelligent presentation of doctrine in the classroom and the assurance of individual safety responsibility and cooperation within the student body. In its own organization and operation it must set an example of safety in action. It must provide safe buildings, grounds and equipment. This safe campus environment is free from debris and hazards. Its buildings are properly built and supplied with safety equipment. It has, among other safety features, adequate lighting in halls and stairways, even treads and risers on stairways, nonskid floor surfaces, adequate stairways and fire escapes, a minimum of unstable objects, proper disposal of paper and trash, guarded machinery, and sanitary and safe gymnasium, shower and swimming pool equipment. Equipment once worn or broken is quickly and efficiently repaired or discarded. Fire inspections are periodically made and student housing is regulated and supervised.

The administration should keep records of accidents, discover safety needs and safety hazards in the schools and community environment. It should emphasize that every faculty member should work in cooperation with the health service department, the local and school police, the fire inspectors, the department of buildings and grounds, the janitors, and all those involved in student transportation to ensure safety to the student body. Last but not least, it should cooperate with all worthwhile movements that will tend to make the community a safer place in which to live.

A critical evaluation of the potential values of safety education for the college student will undoubtedly justify its inclusion in the curriculum. Conditions vary in different schools and cities. Safety education may not be treated in the same way in all curriculums. The procedures successful in one place may not be so in another. The choice of the specific place in the curriculum which would seem best to serve that particular school and the employment and forceful application of the most effective methods to teach it are obligations of all colleges and universities.

Only when the colleges and universities effectively meet the social need in safety education for all of their students can their students use the word accident and confidently say that it is not a word to excuse their neglect, to hide their weakness, to ease their conscience and to cover their failures.

BEN W. MILLER.

SAFETY AS CONTROL

IN THE last century, two writers looked upon the development of machine-made civilization and made their predictions. The first, Samuel Butler, predicted the downfall of man, his subjugation and enslavement by the machine, and eventual death. The second writer, Edward Bellamy, saw how the organizing genius of man might triumph over materialistic mechanics and set the soul free. The two pictures form a striking contrast and deserve study that would be out of place here. They are mentioned as possibly furnishing clues to the concept of safety and to how that concept may develop.

Certainly the grim and horrible predictions of Butler were more than fulfilled as the tempo of production accelerated in the factory, the mine, and the farm. With the invasion by the machine into home and public highway the record of mutilation and grisly death mounted relentlessly and recklessly. But here and there a few men were beginning to reckon, were beginning to combat this seemingly relentless force. The concept of safety began to spread.

At first this concept, as implied in the very word safety, was a kind of negative idea. There developed quantities of negative prohibitions: "don't do this," "don't do that," and (for the ordinary man of the street) a simple ABC—"Always Be Careful." State and municipal laws were passed in the naive assumption that one can deal with Juggernaut by legislative fiat. Althought it was inevitable that safety should have its origin in a kind of blind resistance to an intangible though powerful force, it was likewise inevitable that cooperative efforts first at resistance and then at control should develop.

Through cooperative efforts at public enlightenment much has been accomplished and yet much remains to be done. In recent years universities and colleges have begun to function not only in the task of public enlightenment but also in the fields of research and of leadership training. Outstanding examples of university cooperation may be cited at Northwestern, Harvard, Yale, Pennsylvania State College, and more recently, New York University. It is right and proper that universities should concern themselves with the task.

But the task is just begun, for gradually there is emerging the concept of control. Not the control of dictatorship, however beneficent, but the control growing out of an enlightened public opinion fed by diligent and disinterested researches and guided through the medium of competent leaders. The emergence of the idea of safety from the darkness of blind resistance into the dawn of positive control is a hopeful sign that man may yet master the machine, may yet build a civilization.

THOMAS FANSLER.

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Education Abstracts

The American Automobile Association and Safety Education

By FOREST R. NOFFSINGER

THIRTY-SEVEN years ago, when a few pioneer automobile owners scattered throughout the country organized the American Automobile Association, there was little need for traffic safety education. Speeds were low, automobile owners were extremely careful in the operation of the "horseless carriage," and pedestrians were wont to stop and gape as the "wonder" passed by. But in the midst of these relatively safe conditions, the far-sighted founders of the AAA proposed in 1902 that the organization should always be interested in safety. They believed it should plan its program and develop its activities so that use of the automobile would be safe and convenient.

There is every reason to credit these pioneers with foresight and vision. Perhaps as they defended the "horseless carriage" with the prophetic argument "the automobile is here to stay," they sensed rather than predicted the serious traffic problems which a greater use of motor vehicles would entrain. At any rate, they began early to study traffic conditions so they could anticipate problems.

As the number of automobiles increased with amazing rapidity, as the AAA developed and effectively promoted better roads, and as the motor car seductively transformed America into a nation of travelers, the Association's program of traffic safety took form, expanded, and became a major social and civic activity.

As far back as twenty years ago, AAA Motor Clubs inaugurated their development of the School Safety Patrol movement. School authorities welcomed the assistance of the AAA Motor Clubs in conducting this activity. No other activity in the history of the safety movement so readily caught and held the imagination of school and civic leaders. And no other activity so combined and effectively utilized the interests of children and the universal desire to stimulate and develop the exercise of constructive citizenship among youth. The distinctive Sam Browne belt and the badge of the patrols are recognized by millions of motorists as the insignia of respected and worthy school civic service. Local Motor Club officials visit schools, consult with teachers, help to organize patrols, provide equipment, supply standard rules and regulations, cooperate in arranging police and school supervision, and continue during the year to help school authorities in keeping the activity on a high level.

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More than 275,000 sturdy, dutiful boys and girls, members of School Safety Patrols in more than 3,250 communities are daily giving a practical demonstration of youth's contribution to the safety movement by protecting the lives of more than eight million classmates. And this group, splendidly aided by their teacher-sponsors, has done what no other age group can claim—they have reduced their accident death rate in the past decade.

To give evidence of a nation's appreciation for the protective influence of these "Sentinels of Safety," school and police authorities cooperating with the AAA have arranged, for the past seven years, a parade and demonstration in the Nation's Capital. Thousands of boys and girls from all over the country, selected on the basis of merit, annually follow the trail to Washington, feast themselves on the beloved shrines of Americanism, revel in imaginative dreams of statesmanship as they meet national leaders, thrill to the sounds of music and marching feet in a colorful parade, and return to their patrol duties fired with enthusiasm for doing a better job. The eighth annual parade will be held in Washington on Saturday, May 13, 1939.

The first national program involving the prep-

aration of traffic safety materials for the use of classroom teachers was conceived and put into operation by the AAA more than ten years ago. Local Motor Club officials besieged by teachers for help in giving safety instruction recognized the inadequacy of teaching materials in this field. Unable to prepare such materials for school use they sought the assistance of the national office. And so early in 1928 the Safety Department was created, traffic specialists and educators were employed, competent artists were selected, and a continuing program for the production of teaching materials was developed. Thus each year for more than a decade, a series of ten safety posters, one for each month of the school year, has been distributed free of charge to any and all teachers who will make use of them. Recognizing the effectiveness of visual stimuli, each poster centers attention on a single, timely traffic safety message presented in vivid colors and large enough to catch the eye and be understood from across the room.

A prominent superintendent of schools, pioneer in safety curriculum, prepares for each poster many suggestions of practical ways to use the poster in teaching safety in connection with English, geography, history, mathematics, music, art, health and science. The lesson suggestions are graded as follows: (a) Kindergarten, first, second and third grades; (b) fourth, fifth and sixth grades; (c) seventh, eighth and ninth grades; and (d) rural one-teacher schools. The suggestions for each grade group are printed on separate loose-leaf sheets so that the teacher may keep them on file for ready use throughout the month.

The AAA specialists who prepare the posters and lessons, profiting from the experience gained over a period of years, have attained a technique that has stood the test of time. More than one million and a quarter of the poster designs are being used this school year. The extent to which the graded lessons have grown in use may be seen in the fact that this year more than 1,500,000 lesson plans are being distributed.

The AAA has also developed and sponsored the distribution of other teaching aids such as safety playlets, songs, crayon color-in sheets and other materials. The crayon sheets are outline drawings in miniature of the posters, and wherever introduced have proved to be extremely popular. This year, more than two million individual sheets are being used. Constantly on the watch for new materials, the AAA Safety Department issues new playlets and other teaching aids at regular intervals.

By the spring of 1934, the need for giving instruction in traffic safety to high school students was beginning to become a major problem to educators. Before that date some attempts had been made to build courses of instruction to acquaint high school students with state and city traffic regulations. Teachers began to call upon local club officials for assistance in the form of teaching materials. And again the local clubs demanded action from the national headquarters.

Early in 1935 a teacher's manual entitled *Sportsmanlike Driving* came off the press. In the preparation of this manual, teaching materials suitable for high school student use appeared as a major need. Inspired by urgent demands for material and eager to help in any activity promising to result in greater safety and efficiency on the highway, the Safety Department of the Association again called upon traffic experts and experienced educators to assist in the preparation of a comprehensive treatment of traffic, safety and driving. The resulting product consisted of a series of text pamphlets, designated as the *Sportsmanlike Driving Series,* and entitled as follows: *The Driver, Driver and Pedestrian Responsibilities, Sound Driving Practices, Society's Responsibilities* and *How to Drive.*

The project evolved and developed as the work progressed. The Automotive Safety Foundation helped the Association in the difficult problem of financing by making substantial grants from their safety fund.

But, important though class activities are, the Association from the very first, had a concept that has tremendously affected the AAA high school safety program: Why not take students out in a car and actually teach them to drive?

By the summer of 1936, the high school safety program of the AAA was well defined, professional educators had been added to the staff of the Safety Department, and requests for assistance in developing well-rounded traffic safety programs and courses of study were beginning to pour into the national office from school authorities all over the country.

The Pontiac Motor Division became interested in the road instruction phase of the program. A plan was developed whereby the Association was

given the use of new cars to be assigned for the school year to high schools upon request. In each school where a car was assigned, a teacher acting on the advice of specialists from the AAA staff, taught groups of students the necessary knowledge of traffic and then took them out in the car on a little-used street near the school building and actually taught them to drive. During the present school year 33 such cars supplied by the Pontiac Motor Division and equipped with dual controls are assigned to high schools by the Association. Two additional cars are being used by staff educators for teacher-training purposes.

These demonstrations proved to school authorities and to the general public in the local community the practicability of teaching beginners how to drive through a course in the high school program. Local civic-minded automobile dealers noted the success of this new school activity. They recognized that schools needed assistance in securing cars to conduct the work in its initial stages. In many localities, particularly in Louisiana, the use of cars was provided without cost by these local dealers. In other communities, school boards have rented or purchased cars to train high school students in the art of sportsmanlike driving.

Many high schools offering road instruction use a quiet street near the school building blocked off by the local police department for training and practice purposes. On this street are placed the conventional markings and road signs commonly encountered by drivers. Places are marked off for practice in parking, driving in a straight line, making right and left turns, driving into a garage, turning around, etc. Some schools, however, are using areas off the street for practice. To assist such schools the Association has developed and made available detailed plans for laying out off-street practice areas or driver training fields.

Almost by accident, the approach that has proven so successful in teaching driver education and training to high school classes, was discovered by the Association. This approach involves making each student, through a self-inventory process, aware of his own physical, mental and emotional characteristics that are related to driving. The Driver Research Department of the Association was engaged in a country-wide testing program for adult drivers, in an attempt to discover simple testing devices through the use of which persons could learn of visual, auditory, mental, emotional and physical coordination defects. Thousands of adult drivers of all kinds voluntarily submitted themselves for tests. People who had been tested began to report that they had corrected their defects, that they no longer drove at night because of sensitiveness to glare, that they had reduced their normal driving speed, or that they were much more careful in all of their driving. All were thankful for the opportunity of taking the tests and of learning how to protect themselves by remedying the defects discovered.

It is a human trait for one to have primary interest in himself. Age has little influence on this trait. The principle applies to high school students as well as to adults. And so here was a new and fresh approach to a course in traffic safety—old in principle to teachers but new in application to safety education—and refreshing and interesting to high school students who were "fed up on the do's and don't's and be carefuls" of the elementary school. A gadget to test your resistance to glare or your muscular coordination—there was activity, adventure, achievement!

Schools needed equipment to utilize this approach. The Driver Research Department set about the task of building additional sets of testing equipment, developing new but simple testing devices, and providing means whereby schools might, through local AAA Motor Clubs, purchase or borrow such equipment as they could use in their safety classes. Realizing that many schools could not afford to purchase the equipment, the Department developed blueprints for many of the testing devices so that they might be built in the school shop at a fraction of the standard purchase price. These blueprints with detailed instructions are available at a nominal price from the Safety Department of the Association.

With the first request from high school officials for assistance in instituting a driver education and training course there developed a new and vital problem—where can a teacher be secured who is familiar with the content available in the field, who knows the technique of teaching beginners of high school age to drive, and who is willing to break away from his regular teaching subject into a new and unchartered field? If this business of driver education and training were to be considered seriously, it was obvious that the teacher needed train-

ing in content and method. Such was the case when industrial arts, home economics and agriculture came into the school program. Driver education and training was no exception.

During the summer of 1936 the first teacher training course for driver education and training was held on the campus of The Pennsylvania State College. The AAA cooperated with the college in offering the course. When the teachers returned to their home communities, some of them convinced local school authorities of the value of driver training in the high school and made plans for teaching it to a number of students. Again the AAA cooperated by assigning cars equipped with dual controls for the road instruction.

After school had begun, Superintendent C. D. Glenn of the Birmingham, Alabama, schools learned of this new subject and recognized its possibilities. He wanted a car and he wanted a trained teacher. The Safety Department sent its specialist in driver training to Birmingham with a car. He selected a teacher already in the system. Day and night for a week the two worked together, set up a schedule, went over the content of classroom work and effective methods of presenting that content. The AAA specialist demonstrated the driver training techniques, the teacher observed and then practiced those techniques under supervision.

Other schools learned of the availability of these AAA services, and the Safety Department specialist was kept busy going from one city to another. But it was soon recognized that the process was far too slow to meet the ever-increasing demand for trained teachers. In December, 1936, a new plan was tried out. The superintendents of three adjoining counties in West Virginia wanted driver education and training courses in the ten high schools under their supervision. They had no trained teachers. They agreed to collect the required number of teachers at Bluefield if the AAA specialist would come to Bluefield for a week to give a training course. This experiment for providing emergency in-service training proved so successful that in March, 1937, a second one-week training course was arranged at the University High School, University of Chicago. The AAA sent two specialists to have charge of the work, one to give instruction in content and methods in the classroom course, the other to demonstrate the techniques of teaching students to drive the car on the street. The teachers who attended this course were released from regular duties for the week and devoted full time to the training course—a total of 54 hours during the week. When the training period was over, each teacher was prepared to go back to his own high school and immediately begin offering a course in driver education and training.

This type of intensive in-service teacher training has proved very popular. Since that first course at Bluefield, West Virginia, in December, 1936, a total of 28 such courses have been held in widely separated cities over the country. In some places the courses were sponsored by local city and county school authorities such as Dayton, Ohio; Cleveland, Ohio; and Miami, Florida. In other places, universities or teacher's colleges have been responsible for arranging the course such as Northwestern University and Indiana University. In still other places the courses have been held on a university campus but sponsored by the State Department of Education such as at the University of Denver, Louisiana State University, the University of Oklahoma and Iowa State Teachers College.

Perhaps one of the important reasons why these in-service training courses are so well received is that each teacher carries back to his school a comprehensive, ready-to-use series of lesson plans covering all phases of traffic safety, mimeographed and bound in permanent form, developed by himself and other members of the group under the supervision of a curriculum expert. In fact, the primary purpose in the session held at Cleveland was the development of a course of study manual for the high schools of the city—a new technique in curriculum construction. The state departments of education in Iowa and Louisiana printed the manuals produced by the groups of teachers there.

Under pressure from school authorities to assist in producing a still greater number of trained teachers in driver education and training, the Association early in 1937 sounded out college authorities on the possibility of offering regular training courses for teachers during the 1937 summer sessions. Several colleges were interested but were at a loss when it came to selecting the professor who would teach the course. Again the Association was faced with a training problem. It was arranged that all professors who were interested would meet on the campus at the University of Kentucky dur-

ing the last week in May and cooperatively work out plans for the summer session courses. A total of 14 professors including four representatives of the United States Indian Service met with two AAA staff specialists and started to work. At the end of the week each professor carried back to his campus a complete mimeographed syllabus and detailed arrangements for conducting his summer session course. These were especially valuable because they had been worked out, criticized and revised by himself and other members of the group. Twelve colleges offered credit courses to teachers during the ensuing summer.

In 1938 the same procedure was followed. One of the professors meeting with the group in May at the University of Kentucky came from the far-off University of Hawaii. Thirty-eight colleges and universities last summer offered credit courses in driver education and training, using the syllabus developed by the group at the Kentucky Institute.

Plans are now being completed for holding institutes for professors in May and June of this year in preparation for 1939 summer sessions. Present plans anticipate locating these institutes at four widely separated points to better serve interested colleges: (1) Pacific coast, (2) Southwest, (3) North Central, and (4) Northeast.

While it is recognized that the present teacher training program in driver education and training is inadequate, it must be kept in mind that an emergency had to be met. Today there are more than 2,000 high school teachers, who because of this emergency training, know more than they did about the content that offers educative possibilities in the field of traffic safety, and about the progressive methods for making that content effective in the lives of high school beginning drivers.

Those in charge of the AAA driver education and training program have set up certain specific principles that govern their advice to schools and their action in training teachers. They have said that any effective program of teaching traffic efficiency in high school must do the following four things:

1. It must bring about in the minds of the boys and girls (a) a realization of the effect of physical, mental, and emotional characteristics on drivers and pedestrians in general, (b) a recognition of their own deficiencies which may affect their traffic practices, and (c) a knowledge of the steps that they can take to remedy or compensate for such deficiencies.

2. It must provide for the establishment in the minds of the boys and girls of those sound principles and practices fundamental to safety and efficiency in traffic, whether as driver or pedestrian, in Maine or California, in city or country, in daylight or dark.

3. It must provide for the establishment of such habits and the perfecting of such skills as will embody the basic principles established and as will assure for the boy or girl safe performance as driver or pedestrian.

4. It must develop among high school youth the attitudes, appreciations and understandings essential to (a) the safe, sane, cooperative, sportsmanlike use of our streets and highways; (b) the sincere acceptance of individual and group responsibility for the conservation of health and life in traffic; and (c) the further development and improvement of traffic conditions through programs of engineering, legislation, enforcement, and education.

So far in this discussion one point has not been made clear. There are, in reality, two distinctly different plans for use of the AAA programs in traffic safety, now being followed by high schools throughout the country:

1. A classroom course offered in a minimum of two periods per week for a semester, with five periods per week strongly recommended. This course should carry credit toward graduation, should be required in that semester in which most students are about to attain legal driving age, and should involve an examination more rigid than the written examination required by any State for securing an operator's license. The class should be small enough in size to permit maximum pupil activity and yet provide economy in its instructional cost. The teacher should believe in the value of education as a means for reducing traffic difficulties, should possess above-average driving skill, and should be trained in useful content and progressive method in classroom safety teaching.

2. A classroom course such as described above followed by road instruction in a dual control car by a teacher trained in approved methods and adhering to accepted standards.

Certainly every high school can offer the type of

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Safety Education in the High School

By E. J. NEARY

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FOR the past five or six years the public has been increasingly aroused by the rapidly mounting accidental death toll each year, particularly those due to motor accidents. Several plans aimed at the reduction of death on the highway have been advanced and tried with little or mediocre success.

One such plan tried frightening the public with magazine articles, posters and moving pictures painting vivid pictures of the horrors and tragedy of death on the highways. This method fell short of its objective because it only succeeded in frightening the conscientious and careful citizen, tending to keep him off the road, and not affecting the reckless and careless person to any great extent, because he invariably thought it applied to someone else. The thought common to these careless individuals probably being, "it cannot happen to me."

The most recent plan, and the one now in operation, is based upon sound and scientific education and training of the individual in all phases of the safety question. This plan, judged by the results indicated in the accident statistics for the year 1938, seems to be more successful in lowering the death toll than anything else yet attempted.

An extensive study of accidents has convinced most experts in the safety field that there is little of the accidental about them. They are largely due to careless, and many times stupid, actions of the people involved.

The problem of safety then, is one of attitudes, habit, and mental discipline. With this thought in mind, various groups outside of the schools such as the automobile associations, insurance companies, automobile manufacturers, and others, began to work out plans designed to educate the public in safe practices necessary to present-day life. Large quantities of printed matter, posters, booklets, etc., were put into the hands of the public. Programs were sent out over the radio, and in many cases the aid of the schools in different communities was enlisted.

Laudable as this work has been, and granting that more gratifying results have been accomplished by it than ever before, the fact remains that the whole structure of safety education as it stands at the present leaves much to be desired, and exposes many undersirable weaknesses that should be eliminated if we are to solve this problem of safety in the most efficient manner.

In the first place, there has been a lack of uniform plans and courses of study. Each agency interested in safety, developed its own course of action, independent of the others. Some of the material has been used as a vehicle for advertising and the promotion of business interests, other than safety. In addition, a large portion of the work has been developed for adult consumption rather than for the youngsters, and is therefore not as effective material for school use as it should be.

There seems to be little doubt that as this problem of safety is one of developing correct attitudes, proper training for later life, educating for better citizens—call it what you will—it is a duty that falls squarely upon the schools, and we can no longer ignore that fact.

In spite of the rapidity of its development, the varied programs, confusion of aims and methods, safety has made rapid strides as part of our school program in many parts of the country—some think too rapid progress for its own effectiveness. Eleven states now require some instruction in general safety by the schools, while thirty-one other states have developed official state courses of study. These courses all over the country provide everything from a sketchy hit-and-miss extra-curricular type of instruction, to a complete regular credit course in the curriculum. In many cases actual road instruction in driving a car is included in the course. As has been previously stated, most of the initiative, compiling of material, as well as the development of the course of study has been by agencies outside the school.

The placing of safety in the school program is as varied as the type of work offered. In some instances it is given as a unit of another subject in the curriculum, such as social science, physical education or industrial arts. In other places it is offered as an extra-curricular activity, while in a few schools it rightfully has a definite place as a separate subject in the curriculum.

Few, if any, requirements as to teacher training or experience in safety work have been required in most schools where safety is being taught. In many cases, some teacher is just arbitrarily chosen to handle this new subject in the school program, with no other qualifications than that this particular teacher has a vacant period during the day in which safety can be taught; or perhaps a teacher is willing to assume this extra load in addition to his other work because of an interest in this type of work. However, in some cases the teachers have had some training in safety, varying from a week's intensive training in traffic safety and driver training courses to regular courses in safety work now offered by a number of universities and teacher training schools.

The majority of instructors teaching safety work in our schools have been given little opportunity to get the type of training in this subject that is required in teaching almost any other subject in the school program. I know of a case where an instructor took a one week's course in driver training, then came back to his school and told seven others what he could remember of the course. Then, these eight instructors took turns teaching students how to drive. Imagine, if you can, the same system applied to teaching English, mathematics, music, art or industrial arts? This type of instruction obviously is not only inadequate but dangerous and does the cause of safety more harm than good.

I have received letters from teachers in different parts of the country, asking for material and suggestions for the teaching of safety. In too many cases, the tenor of the letter is "I have been appointed to teach safety in our school. I have had little or no experience in this type of work. Could you tell me where I can get material, courses of study, and directions on how to proceed in teaching a class of safety in high school?" Perhaps this sort of thing is unavoidable in some cases, because of the sudden demand upon schools for teaching safety, and the scarcity of usable and well organized material on a new subject, but the fault should be corrected at once.

There is need for a vast amount of work on the part of educators in organizing and improving upon the varied safety material now available. Much of this material, although excellent, needs to be revised and adapted to school use and educational standards. Teachers should be given an opportunity to avail themselves of a sound training course in the teaching of safety. Practical tests must be devised. Definitely, safety in the schools must be put upon the same sound educational foundation that the other well established subjects taught in the schools now enjoy.

It has become increasingly evident that a sound program of safety must be put into our educational system, beginning in the elementary schools and continuing through High School. The results already achieved through cooperation with police officials, motor clubs, insurance companies, and others, by the schools clearly indicate that we are on the right path, and by education we will be able to reduce the needless loss of life, eliminate much of the huge toll of injured, and save millions of dollars in property loss that has been suffered in the past.

I have been asked to discuss, among other things, safety work in the high school. What should be taught, and how? First, may I say that I firmly believe that safety should have a definite place in the curriculum under the supervision of an instructor well qualified to teach safety? The course should reach every student in the high school. In addition to the regular course in safety, material relative to safety should be incorporated in several of the other courses in school, especially social science, industrial arts and physical education. Home room programs in safety should be given from time to time. In addition to this, some sort of student organization such as a Junior Safety Council, Motor Traffic Club or Bicycle Club should be sponsored.

While all types of safety education should be touched upon in a high school course, highway safety, including pedestrian practices, driver training, and safe bicycle riding should occupy the major part of a regular course of study in safety given on the high school level.

Many of the seasonal hazards, such as swimming, skating, etc., can be handled through the home room programs by the student organizations,

such as the Junior Safety Council under the supervision of the safety instructor. Safety information relative to games, shops and machinery can be furnished to the teachers of those subjects by the safety teacher from time to time. We have found the National Safety Council an excellent source for this sort of material. A school membership in this organization can be obtained for a nominal fee, and insures a constant supply of posters and varied safety information each month.

The regular course in safety should be given at about the sophomore level, or at about the age that the student will be legally eligible to drive a car. This is especially important if driver road training is part of the course. The course should teach sound pedestrian practices, as well as an understanding of good motoring practices.

The function and operation of our various enforcement bodies as they apply to traffic should be studied. Traffic laws and traffic engineering should be given some attention, for it is only by an understanding and appreciation of all phases of highway safety that the student will be able to form the correct attitudes and habits, which are essential to successful practicing of real safety.

One thing that should be avoided, and that is not to sermonize or be too critical. The instruction in this work should always be positive. The teacher should strive to lead and direct the student to the proper objectives through enthusiasm and understanding, rather than by constant criticism and the damning of the accident picture as it now stands. The instructor must be well informed and skillful in the practices he wishes to teach, so that the students will look up to him and value his opinion and theories relative to safety.

The teacher of safety will make the course far more effective if he will have persons prominently identified with traffic control and safety in the community take part in the classwork at frequent intervals. This group should include civic leaders, doctors, lawyers, judges and police officials. One of the most valuable results obtained by school safety courses now in operation is the warm friendship and keen interest in the police accident prevention work that has developed from close contact between police officers and students, through safety classes in the school.

In the state of Illinois, the State Department of Highways has been doing an excellent job of cooperating with the schools throughout the state. This department furnishes valuable printed material at regular intervals and will send uniformed State Police to the schools at any time desired to give talks and conduct examinations in traffic problems and driving. This service is without charge, and may be had for the asking by any school in the state. Local police officers in any community will gladly give the same sort of service, and their aid should be enlisted at every opportunity.

The motive behind this emphasis on police contact is, that in the past there seems to have been a distinct feeling of hostility between the police and motorist. The motorist considered it smart "to put one over" on the police. Traffic regulations were resented, and only obeyed when an officer was present to enforce them. In some cases, bad police work, speed traps, inefficient and badly planned traffic control, coupled with lack of understanding and sympathy on the part of the public, fostered this attitude and has contributed in no small way to the deplorable accident toll that has been produced each year.

Recently a better understanding and interest on the part of the public in traffic problems and safety has resulted in improved and scientific traffic control and police work, rapid elimination of speed traps, and voluntary cooperation on the part of the public with the police in attempting to make traffic control function safely. This one thing has probably had more to do with saving some 7,000 lives so far this year than any other factor in the safety campaign.

Safety education in the high school is no longer a possibility, but a fact. The question is not—"Shall we teach safety?" It is, "How shall we teach safety?" How to organize the work and fit it into the school program? The answers to these questions then is the problem of school administrators and teachers.

I believe that the correct solution of the problem will be forthcoming from the schools of this country, just as in the past the schools have accepted every great social problem that has been presented to them by the public and found a solution in a manner that has given merit and honor to the American educational system.

Safety education has progressed rapidly in the schools during the past year or two, but in rather a

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A Psychological Approach to Safety Education

By CHARLES D. FLORY

SAFETY education has been discussed with such intensity during the past few decades that the attention of the nation has been focused on the problem. All means are being considered which may, in any way, contribute to safer living. The schools realize the severity of the responsibility that rests upon their shoulders. Psychologists are being asked to devise ways and means to make the learning of safety information more economical of time and energy, and the practice of safety habits more certain. While the psychologists have been slow to attack the problem experimentally, teachers have been quick to see that safety education has a psychology that differs insignificantly from the psychology of any other type of real or good education. It is the purpose of the following discussion to indicate a few accepted psychological principles and some tested educational practices, which are helpful in making our citizens safe.

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A False Emphasis on Machines

The first thing the safety worker will have to learn, is a fact the elementary-school teacher has learned a long time ago, that the emphasis must be placed on the child himself and not on devices or machines. Teachers once taught subjects to children. They now teach children by means of certain curricular materials. Safety education is a false goal; the real objective is safe living.

There is a widespread notion among industrialists, and perhaps among even a few teachers, that society can be made a safe society if the hazards of life are removed—if safe machines, safe highways, safe buildings, and in general safe gadgets are put into use. It seems likely that there are more safety devices today than persons who know how to use these devices safely—or perhaps, persons who are willing to use them safely.

Brigham[1] says:

> "Only a minor part of the accidents that happen are primarily due to the failure of breaks, tires, steering-gear, headlights, slippery road surfaces, and other physical conditions . . . between three-quarters and nine-tenths of all accidents are traceable mainly to failure of the human factor."

Vernon[2] contends:

> "Until comparatively recent years it was supposed that prevention of industrial accidents depended chiefly on the adequate guarding of machinery and other mechanical appliances used in production, but it is now realized that the majority of accidents incurred in most branches of industry are not connected at all with machinery. They depend upon the nonmechanical conditions in which the human factors play an all-important part."

Senator Wagner[3] has said:

> "For the past two decades the doctrine has been preached that the promotion of safety is a function of government. Basically that doctrine rests on an article of faith: the firm belief that the so-called hazards of industry can be eliminated."
>
> . . . .
>
> "The realization is gradually growing upon us that safety cannot be isolated as an individual objective; that it is the product of perfect coordination in industry in all its phases; that it is a necessary aspect of civilized business wherein men respect themselves and respect each other, where life is highly regarded, where man is master of the machine and not its servant."

[1] Brigham, W. V. "Psychology and Highway Safety," *Scientific Monthly*, 1930, 31, 552.

[2] Vernon, H. M. "The Neglect of the Human Factor in the Prevention of Industrial Accidents," *International Labour Review*, December, 1936, 34, 772-81.

[3] Wagner, R. F. "Promotion of Safety and Security of Employment as a Function of Government," *American Labor Review*, 1929, 19, 393-96.

These three writers have caught the simple fact that safety is largely a matter of human relations. If accident-prone individuals, who have no regard for human life, are allowed to operate machines—no matter how safe the machine—there are bound to be accidents.

We have safer cars, with more safety devices, on our highways each year—but, have accidents been reduced? They have not! We build cars with four-wheel brakes to reduce driving hazards, but do we reduce accidents? We do not; we merely speed up traffic and make faster driving as safe as slower driving once was. We build four-lane highways but accidents continue to occur, and more serious accidents. The four-lane highway allows more traffic to pass a given point and pass that point more rapidly, but it does not reduce traffic accidents. In the eastern states where super-highways have been built in great numbers traffic is moved with less congestion, but with little decrease in the number of serious accidents. Four-wheel brakes and super-highways are essentials for modern traffic, but it is also essential that only persons who know how to drive cars be allowed on those super-highways. A fool and an irresponsible genius are dangerous persons to meet on any kind of a highway and in any kind of a vehicle.

The notion that accidents are due to chance or "hard luck" must be debunked. Some drivers still have the notion that they are immune until "their time comes," and it doesn't make any difference how carefully or how carelessly they drive. When they do bump into the other fellow and smash his car or break a leg, it was always "hard luck." It appears that there is little "hard luck" in life but a tremendous amount of "dumb luck." Both the dumbness and the luck seem to reside in the operator of the machine.

The facts show clearly that there is little hope that accidents will be reduced materially merely by making machines, highways, streets, homes, and gadgets of all kinds safer. Safety education must concentrate on training men to use safety devices safely.

The Human Factors in Safety

If the psychologist has any contribution to make to the problem of safety education it is certainly in pointing out the human factors which make for waste in human living. Vernon[4] has isolated five accidents. These factors are: (1) accident proneness; (2) lack of attention in dangerous situations; (3) actual carelessness; (4) lack of knowledge of the dangers involved; and (5) lack of knowledge of the means of protection when a danger arises. The first of these five factors demands serious consideration and study.

Investigations have shown repeatedly that a comparatively small group of workers in each industry has the largest proportion of the accidents. In one company, one-third of the employes had more than two-thirds of the accidents. In a small Wisconsin city there is a young man who in a single year killed two individuals with a car, and wrecked a third car by backing into it. Such an individual is clearly accident-prone and should be prohibited from driving until he is shown to be competent.

Psychologists can often point to a cause without being able to offer a remedy. Accident-proneness is one of those situations where the problem is seen more clearly than the remedy. There are few tests today which can be used with confidence to determine accident-prone individuals. After a person shows himself to be accident-prone in actual life one can advise that he be placed in situations where there is little chance for injury to himself or others. But it would be so much more convenient if these potential killers could be discovered before they kill. Research is needed to develop adequate test for accident proneness.

The difficulty is that accident-proneness is not a single quality. It involves reaction time, temperament, sensory acuity, intelligence, emotional stability, and the like. About the best that the psychologists can do at present is to divide individuals into four groups and predict that those in the lowest quarter will have two to two and one-half times as many accidents as those in the other three groups. The tests are not accurate enough at present to select accident-prone individuals with certainty.

Other psychological factors such as age, experience, race, sex, fatigue, illumination, and the like have been studied to some extent but the surface has barely been scratched. Conclusions drawn at the present time are likely to be disproved by subsequent work. It seems, however, on the basis of our present meager evidence, that younger persons are factors which are highly important in controlling

[4] Vernon, *op. cit.*

more prone to accidents than older individuals. This fact may be largely a result of their inexperience or it may be a direct indication of the spirit of adventure in youth. Race does not seem to be a significant factor in accident-proneness. If prejudices could be eliminated many of the racial issues would disappear. There is also a good deal of prejudice toward women drivers. However, the facts seem to show that women do have about three times as many accidents as men, when computed on the basis of the miles driven. Women's accidents are less severe as a rule and more of them are the result of cars running into them from the rear. This fact seems to indicate a greater cautiousness on the part of women drivers.

It was once thought that color-blindness, speed of reaction time, deafness, the absence of a limb, and intelligence were important factors in safe driving. It is now known that these factors are relatively insignificant. The person with one limb or defective hearing will compensate for his defect by over-cautiousness and therefore is usually a safer driver than the average. The person with a quick reaction time may learn to take chance hoping to be able to think and react more quickly than the average in an emergency. Intelligence is much less important than the emotional stability of the driver.

There are aspects, however, of these problems which have significance. The person with a variable reaction time is a rather dangerous driver. If he perseverates when he should be putting on the brakes, disaster is ahead. The absent-minded professor at the wheel is a dangerous driver even though he may have a Ph.D. as an indication of his scholarly attainments. If he is highly prone to absent-mindedness, which is another name for deep concentration, then he should "stick to his horse." The good driver has imagination which assists him in predicting what is coming up in highway traffic. The most important factor of all these special abilities seems to be emotional stability. The reason for prohibiting the 15-year-old boy from driving a car is not his age, his intelligence, his knowledge of cars, or his knowledge of the rules of the highway, but his lack of emotional stability. By the same logic, the large number of adults who have a type of emotional stability which is way below that possessed by 15-year-old adolescents should also be prohibited from endangering the lives of others on the highway.

Teaching Safety

The evidence indicates that the only way to achieve safe living is to educate people for safety. Safety instruction is committed to that program, but how effective are the methods which are being used? A look at industry will reveal the success of their educational procedures. Krows[5] points out that "industry for purely selfish, profit-making reasons, undertook safety education." Their methods have included at various times five approaches to the problem: (1) safety devices; (2) warnings; (3) punishment; (4) rewards; and (5) safety education.

Safety devices may reduce accidents per unit of production without reducing the number of accidents. It has been pointed out that the safer the machine the faster they are run, and the more careless the operators become. More work is turned out with safe machines run rapidly, but accidents continue to occur, and, in some instances, more serious accidents.

Warnings often tempt the youth to try it to see what will happen. Who has not touched a freshly painted door labelled "Wet Paint" to see if the sign meant what it said? Hell Fire was once sufficient warning to keep people good, but the preachers have long since given up that technique. Warnings appear to have slight value in themselves. There must be a willingness to heed signs if they are to affect life significantly.

Punishment would be effective if the transgressor were punished each and every time he acted unsafely. But the threat of punishment is not effective. Traffic laws do not prevent accidents because drivers have learned how to play hide-and-seek with the police officers, and beat them most of the time. They know too many ways by which the penalty can be fixed or escaped; the laws themselves are in some instances so absurd that they are unenforceable. In the writer's home city one is supposed to drive 20 miles an hour, but if he were to obey the law all other cars on the street would be passing him. He would be creating a greater hazard than when driving at the usual speed which is 25 to 30 miles per hour. Surveys show that there is a general disregard of the unreasonable laws of the small cities and villages. Motorists almost unanimously exceed the 20-mile per hour limits of small

[5] Krows, A. E. "The Risks of Safety," *New Outlook*, 1935, 165, 29.

villages. The average speed in these areas has been found to be 42.4 miles per hour with the slowest 15 per cent of the drivers averaging 27.2 miles per hour. Drivers are more respectful to 30-mile zones. The average speed in 30-mile zones has been found to be 34.8 miles per hour, with the slowest 15 per cent averaging 24.1 miles per hour. Motorists are willing to adjust their speed to traffic, population, highway conditions, and apparent hazards, but they will not obey posted speed limits which are obviously unreasonable. The American public has a faulty attitude concerning laws and law enforcement, thus laws do not, in themselves, prevent accidents.

Rewards are still used in some industries as an incentive for safe conduct. The psychology of the practice indicates that a badge or a button is putting safety on a Boy Scout level which certainly does not appeal to mature, intelligent adults.

Finally, industry has turned to safety education and the schools have taken up their cause. Teachers are trying to face the problem and help save lives, property, and the beauty of our communities. If safety education is to work, it, as any other type of education, must seek to give knowledge, develop habits, and instill right attitudes. The schools are certainly competent to give information, since that has been one of their major objectives for centuries. The schools must teach people so that they will know what dangers are likely to be encountered, i.e. where the dangers are. The schools must also teach people so that they will know how to face these dangers when they meet them. But education must not stop at knowing. If people would do as well as they know, there would be need for few police, almost no jails, and perhaps no penal institutions.

The knowledge gained through safety instruction must be developed into acceptable habits of safety. Habits are never developed by lecturing. Habits, as the shop teachers know very well, are developed only by long continued practice. If the schools ever hope to develop an adequate safety education program they must accept this principle and begin to make provisions for practicing safe living. New Hampshire has 57 high schools with classes in auto driving, while New Jersey has 40. Such instruction is a step in the right direction, but one dare not assume that an adolescent is ready or competent to drive just because he has attended a driving school. The writer has practiced golf at a driving range, but he does not consider himself a golfer. He has consented to the graduation of certain persons from teacher training courses, but some of them are not ready to teach. A person must not be allowed to handle dangerous machines in society until he has demonstrated his fitness to assume the responsibility involved.

Attitudes, the third of the triumverate in an adequate safety education program, are the hardest to instill. Psychology shows that attitudes are caught more quickly than they are taught. The child picks them up from his parents, his teachers, and other adults in the community. When one tries to teach against the prevailing attitudes of the community he is working against an uphill and a long-time program. The fact is that our communities today do not possess the basic attitudes needed for safety. The predominant attitudes, according to Krows[6] are:

1. We want to take chance. We have the notion that chances lead to success. We even teach the children—"Columbus took a chance," and "nothing ventured, nothing gained." Of course we think of these proverbs as applying to other situations but the youth applies them to those situations where safety is involved; where lives are at stake.
2. We all feel that safety is for the other fellow.
3. It is good for him—so that he won't annoy us.
4. We have no real consideration for our neighbor and his life or his property.
5. Saving is out of our economy. Oh, yes, we have saving banks in school but then we go right outside and are faced with an economy which urges us to—spend, burn, waste, kill.

This faulty state of mind represented by our attitudes is our greatest obstacle to safety. There is little hope of teaching safety on the basis of knowledge and habits alone. The basic attitudes of the people must be changed. Toops and Haven[7] found that of 200 drivers questioned 160 had been in accidents and only one thought he was at fault.

The schools have failed also to develop an attitude of courtesy in our people. A kind of attitude

[6] Krows, *op. cit.*

[7] Toops, Herbert A. and Haven, E. Edson, "Viewing the Traffic Problem," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, April, 1937, 21, 185-97.

has been fostered which makes Americans want to rely too much on their own rights. This point is well illustrated by the little jingle quoted in *Hygeia.*[8]

> Here lies the body of Jonathan Day
> Who died maintaining his right of way.
> He was right, all right, as he sped along,
> But he's just as dead as if he were wrong.

Safety in modern life means that men must be fitted to their jobs, but it also means that education for safety must be fitted to men. Modern society has more safety devices than it has men trained to use them. When the family goes on an extended motor trip everything is inspected carefully except the driver. The fact must not be ignored that the psychological characteristics of human beings are responsible for more accidents than are imperfections in the mechanical gadgets. Safety education is doomed to failure unless an effort is made to keep a happy balance in instruction so that knowledge, habits, and attitudes are adequately developed.

[8] Everet, Eleanor, "Tomorrow's Drivers," *Hygeia,* July, 1936, 14, 593-98.

The AAA

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program described under 1. Many high schools can and are offering the type of program described under 2.

In summary, the following services in safety education are offered by the AAA and affiliated Motor Clubs to schools:

1. Assistance in organizing, promoting, supervising and equipping School Safety Patrols.
2. Monthly posters on timely safety topics.
3. Graded lesson sheets to aid teachers in giving integrated safety instruction in the elementary school.
4. Supplementary instructional materials such as safety playlets, color-in sheets, etc.
5. Testing devices to detect physical, mental, and emotional deficiencies that affect driving. Blueprints and instructions for making these testing devices in high school shops are also available.
6. A complete text for classroom use called *Sportsmanlike Driving,* developed in content by traffic specialists, well illustrated, written by prominent educators, with a vocabulary and style on the high school level, based upon sound traffic fundamentals, approached from the postive angles of sportsmanship, efficiency and responsibility; free from propaganda and advertising.
7. A series of standardized achievement tests to accompany *Sportsmanlike Driving.*
8. A road instruction technique based on sound psychology of learning by doing and practicing until perfect; practical and relatively inexpensive for large, middle-size, or small school; and safe through the use of dual-control cars, properly marked streets, trained instructors, traffic official cooperation, and insurance protection.
9. A teacher training program designed to give teachers essential knowledge in this relatively new field as well as to train them in the methods of teaching found to be most effective.
10. Supplementary teaching service including a teacher's manual, slide and film service, bibliographies and references on traffic safety and engineering, tests, charts, and other teaching aids.
11. Expert consultation service in both curriculum and administrative phases of safety education.

In conclusion it should be pointed out that AAA lack of emphasis on other phases of safety than traffic is not the result of chance nor is it an indication of a feeling that home, recreational, vocational, farm and other phases of safety are unimportant. There has been a job to do in traffic safety and that job alone has taxed to the limit the energy and the resources of the Safety Department. Temptation to enter other fields has been great but first of all the job in traffic safety must be well done.

High School Safety

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blind fashion. We have been pioneering in a new field. The work lacks uniformity and coordination. There is much onfusion of aims and methods.

There is a feeling on the part of those in close contact with the work that perhaps we should pause and consolidate our work, put our house in order, so that we may do the work in the most efficient manner; thereby achieving the same fine results that the schools in the past have so often proved possible when the public and the schools put their shoulder to the wheel in solving a difficult and vexing problem.

The Utilization of Community Agencies and Resources

By ROBERT E. LEANDERSON

THERE is increased evidence about us to indicate a closer unity of school and community. Aristotle is reported to have said, "Education should help each individual to attain the highest degree of happiness by living a virtuous life as a citizen of a virtuous state." Interpreting "state" as a democratic society, our course, though clear, is by no means an easy one. Our happiness and eagerness for abundant living is occasionally interrupted by the toll of preventable accidents. John B., for instance, is fatally injured at work because he fails to condition and adjust himself to meet the hazards of certain plant machinery. Likewise, Tony A., a father, is not aware that pedestrian right of way cannot be taken for granted, even at cross-walks. Through his act his family is left destitute. Baby Louise is left motherless because of her parents' misinformation regarding the explosiveness of kerosene. Accidents continue to occur because of a general indifference to and the assumption of the belief that "it cannot happen to me."

The numbers who suffer painful injury in addition to those who actually lose their lives have naturally caused education some concern. Consequently, there is evidence that the schools are becoming increasingly aware of the need for an education which embodies among other objectives preparation for safe living. Sullivan's[1] survey of school systems of the United States reveals the fact that separate courses of study of safety education are now being used in fifty-one per cent of one hundred representative school systems scattered throughout the country. In addition, thirty-six per cent of these cities allot a definite time for the subject. Significant, too, is the fact that approximately fifty per cent of the cities canvassed reported "safety education compulsory either by state law or local regulation."

Every community has in its midst agencies which are peculiarly well suited to enrich the safety activities of the school system. In the following paragraphs several of these will be described which we believe have had a profound bearing upon the safety consciousness of Detroiters, particularly those of school age. This list is by no means exhaustive. Other cities undoubtedly cooperate with groups which are not described here. Several types of organizations and their specific contributions will be indicated.

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The Fire Department. During Fire Prevention Week of the past two years 160,000 children witnessed a unique series of fire demonstrations in 164 local public and parochial schools. While the entire student body assembled on the playground, uniformed firemen staged a series of maneuvers which they perform when called upon to extinguish fires. A loud speaker interpreted every detail to pupils, explaining to them "not only the how, but why." Children were also cautioned regarding the dangers of the street.

An interesting invitation was also given parents to cooperate in preventing home fires. Inspection blanks taken home by pupils served as the basis of a search throughout the house for potential fire hazards. Many thousands of these were returned by the children after being checked by parents. In addition to those whose children attended the neighborhood school, it was interesting to observe that many other mothers and fathers gathered on their porches to witness this performance. The demonstration was not only valuable from the point of view of fire prevention but it also acquainted local citizens with an activity which is

[1] Sullivan, John P. "Present Status of Safety Education in Some Representative School Systems," *American Journal of Public Health*, XXVIII (October, 1938), 1183.

only too rarely appreciated by the taxpaying public.

The American Red Cross. If the locality is favored with many lakes and streams it follows that the schools are obligated in some measure to prepare local youth for happy yet safe use of the water. The public junior and senior high schools of Detroit contain twenty-five swimming pools which are used to maximum capacity daily. The services of the American Red Cross have been helpful in facilitating the swimming instruction, particularly in the realm of life saving. At this very moment an announcement comes to the writer relative to an American Red Cross water safety course to which all instructors of swimming are invited.

The Home Safety Inspection Blank of this organization represents one specific undertaking in a sorely needed program of home accident prevention. The schools and the pupils serve as an excellent medium through which the home and the parents can be reached. One hundred and sixty thousand Home Inspection Blanks were distributed, signed, and returned by local high school pupils during the month of October. This activity is purely voluntary on the part of pupil and parent. For the teacher the opportunity for its use as instructional material in the classroom is limitless. Two recent publications of the American Red Cross are certainly worthy of note here. "First Aid Textbook" and "Life Saving and Water Safety" are exceedingly valuable publications for every teacher. A copy could well be placed in the library of every school.

The Radio. The radio has also been effective in its application to accident prevention programs. The local school system has endeavored to utilize this excellent device by incorporating an expert radio staff in the instructional department.

Schools throughout any city might well avail themselves of excellent safety programs which are on the air from time to time. Locally, schools are frequently sent preparatory guides in advance of the safety broadcast. These are developed by the radio education staff. This insures a state of readiness on the part of pupils at the time of broadcast and assists teachers in their preparation for the reception. Samples of safety programs which have been developed by the schools and broadcast over one of six Detroit stations are:

Title	*Content*
"The Safety Patrol"	How patrols operate in Detroit.
"Safety in the Home"	Hazards confronting the entire family at home.
"Getting Ready for School"	Safety precautions for the beginning pupil.
"Vitamins and Calories"	Suitable and safe types of food for children.
"Promotion Time"	Hazards confronting children when transferring to a new school.
"Viewing a Vocation During Vacation"	Vocations and their hazards.
"Fun and Health, Too"	Sensible precautions to take when picnicking.

Several times a day a message is radiocast urging automobile drivers to take special precaution during the winter season. This is the voice of an officer of the Public Safety Bureau of the Police Department. Regular and timely messages of this type are definitely of value in relation to school child safety, particularly when the motorist is reminded as he leaves for work in the morning that thousands of children are on their way to school.

Parent-Teacher organization. There are few, if any, subjects of more genuine concern to parents than the safety of their children. For this reason it is fitting that one program of parent groups during this year be devoted to some phase of the safety problem. There is an increasing tendency, too, for groups of this type to give consideration to "home" as well as "public" accidents. By the latter term we refer to accidents which result from fire, firearms, drowning, camping, fireworks, railroad trespassing, etc.

When a safety patrol functions perfectly in a school one can be reasonably sure that the recognition by school administrators has played an important role. Parent groups have aided greatly in this respect by assigning the local patrol a place of honor on safety programs when they are held. In certain cases, material assistance has been given to the patrol personnel by supplying outer garments suitable for the unpleasant weather conditions which prevail throughout the year, particularly in the northern states.

Coordination among the various parent groups may be greatly aided by the selection of an individ-

ual to give direction to the parent safety program as it relates to the schools. In Detroit this individual has been an enthusiastic school principal. His duties have been mainly those of securing speakers for parent-teacher meetings, furnishing other parent groups with program suggestions, and making available safety literature similar to that furnished by the National Congress of Parents and Teachers.

The Safety Council. Schools which train youth for industrial vocations are also necessarily concerned with the health and safety implications involved. Therefore, it logically follows that every organization has a responsibility to assume if one of its ultimate goals is the reduction of accidents to the worker. Meetings held by the Detroit Industrial Safety Council have been widely attended by teachers as well as laymen. Outstanding leaders in the industrial safety field have enabled local teachers to keep abreast of progress to minimize injury and death to Detroit's 750,000 employed women and men. Among subjects discussed during the past year were those relative to occupational disease prevention, traffic safety among plant workers, the psychology of accident prevention, and the organization of the plant safety program.

One of the very excellent cooperative ventures of the Industrial Safety Council with the schools of the Greater Detroit area has been the designation of a full day of the annual Michigan State-Wide Safety Congress to "Education for Safety." Meetings held on this day have served to inform several hundreds of teachers regarding progress, procedures, and the many unsolved problems relative to effective school safety programs.

Boy Scouts. Safety and scouting are synonymous since "being prepared" is the very essence of the safety movement. Schools may well encourage pupils to acquire the techniques which the Scout is required to master for such an award as the Merit Badge in First Aid or Life Saving. Because of their familiarity with the general subject of accident prevention, Scouts will invariably be of great assistance to teachers who contemplate the study of some aspect of the safety problem.

In order to bring the local Scouting program in close harmony with that of the schools, it has been helpful to have represented in the Executive Council of the Scouts the Superintendent of Schools and the Director of Health and Physical Education. These individuals serve in a liaison capacity. This representation has been conducive of a wholesome reception of the entire Scouting movement as an educational arm of the school. The annual Boy Scout Exposition, which in 1938 attracted some 33,000 parents and school children, undoubtedly served as an ingenious device to call attention to the contributions of Scouting to safe living. Safe procedures in fire building, care of the camp fire, first aid, water safety, and conservation of our natural resources were demonstrated at the Exposition.

The Board of Health. Nowhere can more accurate statistical data be found regarding the complete accident picture in any locality than in the records of the Board of Health. For those teachers who are inclined to stress only traffic safety, a brief examination of the records based upon the death certicate of the physician will indicate a surprising number of home, public, and occupational fatalities as well as traffic deaths.

The highly organized program of the local Board of Health through its clinical, nursing, diagnostic, inspection, and communicable disease programs is an invisible yet constant force for the improvement of the health and safety of the school child. Of interest to some administrators may be the recent formation of a local advisory committee of school and Board of Health representatives. This group has as its purpose the study and improvement of the local health program as it relates to the school child. On this committee are representatives of the various educational levels of the school system as well as the physician in charge of school health.

Railroads. One of the distressing problems for school administrators to cope with is that of trespassing on railroad property by school pupils. When the latter are apprehended by police officials they frequently give incorrect names and addresses. Thus the problem of identification becomes complicated. Yet when a school child is crushed by a moving freight train so badly that his leg must be amputated we are apt to feel at least a moral responsibility to do something about it.

Railroad officials can assist the schools in meeting this problem by supplying parents and schools with the correct names of offenders when the practice is habitual in any neighborhood. Individual conferences with the boys are often helpful. Likewise, where the practice of "hopping" trains can be made the unsocial thing to do, the offense can

gradually be discouraged. Where the home is unsympathetic, however, little can be done.

Newspapers. No one can deny the fact that the influence of the printed word has had considerable effect on bringing the local and national accident problem before the public. For the teacher, descriptions of accidents obtained from local and state newspapers may serve as appropriate classroom discussion material. Editorials may provoke critical thinking by pupils. Opinions of subscribers often reflect the feeling of the community regarding some trying traffic problem. If lay opinions are received frequently enough, they often serve as excellent material for subsequent editorials. Topics of this nature, which relate to safety within the community, cannot but help vitalize safety instruction in the classroom.

The school newspaper may be an aid which is not to be overlooked. Suitable safety "cuts" may be obtained from the National Safety Council. These, coupled with an occasional editorial or interesting facts regarding accidents to local pupils, may be both interesting and effective.

Visual Aids. Probably the most complete safety bibliography of visual material is that which is contained in the recent National Education Association Research Bulletin entitled, "Safety Education." School people will wish to take care, however, that any film material used meets with standards established by the local school system. While films and slides on the general subjects of traffic and industrial safety are quite plentiful, there is still a dearth of visual aids which are suitable for home and public accident study. With the growing interest in photography, there are some who find it expedient to develop visual materials centered about local pupils and around conditions within the city. In other communities, automobile manufacturers and distributors will gladly make their visual materials available for instructional purposes.

Automobile Clubs. Much of the pioneer educational work in the traffic safety field originated with motor clubs. Schools will find these organizations ready to equip patrol boys, organize bicycle clubs, distribute posters, lesson plans and courses of study, make awards for heroic life saving, furnish visual aids, and delegate speakers for school or adult safety meetings. Occasionally, clubs of this nature may be staffed by several traffic engineers. Their services for engineering studies are often free to any community for the asking.

The Police Department. Schools may well avail themselves of the services offered by the local police department. Specific assistance can be given by officers on such matters as protecting pupils going to and from schools at dangerous intersections, enforcing parking regulations in the vicinity of school buildings, assisting with the supervision of the safety patrol, making recommendations for the installation of school traffic signals, and speaking to child and adult groups.

One of the finest outcomes of the contact of the police officer with any student body is the increased respect for law observance. In our city, seven hand-picked young men of the Public Safety Bureau of the Police Department work in the schools. Each officer visits one of fifty schools at least monthly. The annual police report indicates that a total of 3,830 visits of this nature were made during the past year. It is needless to say here that the combination of a pleasing personality, the police uniform, and a host of interesting methods of presenting safety to children is making a wholesome and lasting impression on the minds of all who are contacted. The officer ceases to be "the cop" and becomes "Officer Brown" or "Officer Black." Police departments may also be helpful in supplying schools with traffic accident data. In this way factual material becomes localized and significant inasmuch as it relates definitely to the local community.

Community Traffic Committees. When the instructional program was first inaugurated in the local public secondary schools the matter was thoroughly discussed by a committee comprised of various school officials meeting with representatives of the Police Department, the parochial schools, the Traffic Court, Psychiatric Clinic, and a consultant engineer of the City of Detroit. The extensive program inaugurated by this group led also to a school for adult drivers. Classes were organized especially for persons who wished to apply for the driver's license. The school is still taught by regular contract teachers under the supervision of the Director of Evening Schools. It is needless to say that, in addition to the establishment of pupil and adult traffic safety classes, this committee served as an excellent agency to strengthen the pro-

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Trends in Bicycle Safety

By WILLIAM G. MOORHEAD and HOMER R. ALLEN

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WITHIN the memory of every reader more than thirty years of age, the decline of the use of the bicycle is an interesting episode of American history. With the increasing use of the automobile during the years just before and for the ten years after the World War, it became a rare sight indeed to see one or more persons riding a bicycle just for the pleasure and exercise involved in the activity. Almost the only persons who continued to use the bicycle were messenger or delivery boys, although a few of the "old-timers" still continued their recreation habits with the vehicle. True, a few organizations, such as the Boy Scouts, used the bicycle for purposes of outings, but more and more it became the custom to use automobiles for transportation, regardless of the group involved. This was quite a logical development, since it permitted the exploration of greater areas of the surrounding country, and also permitted more time to be spent in the actual outing activity.

Whether it was the depression of 1929 to 1932, or whether it was the result of an increasing appreciation of the great outdoors, the fact remains that during the years since the depression, there has been a steady and even phenomenal growth in the sale and use of bicycles in this country. A study of the available figures indicates that in the years from 1933 to 1937 there was an increase of about 1,000,000 bicycles sold in this country, representing roughly 400 per cent. On the other hand, the increase in accidents to the riders was only about 100 per cent. However, any activity which results in 810 fatalities, and 32,000 injuries, as was the case in 1937, justifies a feeling of apprehension on the part of parents and authorities. It is not surprising, therefore, that we have an increasing agitation throughout the country toward emphasizing safety procedures in bicycling.

Why are bicycle riders in greater danger of accidents now than they were years ago? First, because there are far more automobiles on the roads today than at any time in our history, and second, because the state and city highway commissions have not included the bicyclist in their plans for better roads. Almost nothing has been done to provide safe riding places for bicyclists, with the result that, since there are laws to prevent them from riding on the sidewalks, they must use the same roads as the autos.

In spite of the above facts, too many bicycle riders still do not feel that they themselves have any responsibility toward promoting safety in riding. They do not realize, or recognize, their obligation to learn and observe the simple rules of the road, even as do drivers of other vehicles. The result is that many accidents happen each year which not only could, but should, be prevented.

There has been considerable discussion as to whether bicycle safety should be promoted by state or local authorities. It now seems probable that, with the relatively restricted areas in which persons ride bicycles, the local authorities have been the first to apply and control safeguards—with the result that many towns and cities have already taken steps to decrease bicycle accidents in their own localities.

Probably the most effective means of accident prevention to date, and one that has been used successfully in many cities, is a law requiring that all bicycles be registered. This may be carried out under the direction of the police, or by an organization such as the Boy Scouts or Safety Council. In nearly every instance, there is also used a short but effective operating test involving certain riding skills. Some of the best work in this field has been promoted in such cities as Keene, N. H., Spring-

field, Mass., White Plains, N. Y., and Hackensack, N. J. The Department of Public Safety of the state of Texas and the State Department of Public Instruction of Delaware have also pioneered in the field. As a further indication of the tremendous growth of interest in this type of safety, it is worthy of note that a national organization, the Bicycle Safety Bureau, with headquarters at Palisades Park, N. J., is functioning very efficiently under the direction of Mr. D. W. Harrington.

The bicycle manufacturers themselves have not been unmindful of their responsibility in the safety field, and their organization, The Cycle Trades of America, is doing its part in spreading the gospel of safety. Undoubtedly, as the bicycle riders of America become more and more familiar with their own responsibilities toward safety and as communities provide safe areas for riding, the accident toll will be materially reduced.

However, a sense of personal responsibility and provision for safe areas alone are not sufficient. In addition, there must be a clear understanding on the part of the bicyclist, of traffic regulations and their observance and a more rigid enforcement of these regulations. Millions of bicycles are using our highways and their presence requires that they must be subject to regulation to the same extent as are automobiles.

Legally, in practically all states, the bicycle is considered a vehicle and, as such, is subject to observance of the vehicle laws of the state. This being true, the responsibility of the state, to be made effective, should express itself in the following steps: (1) registration, compulsory by the state, for a nominal fee not to exceed fifty cents. This places upon the rider a responsibility to observe the laws and to ride carefully; (2) recognition—this comes with and as the result of registration, and will not come without it; (3) regulation—this means the enactment of proper legislation and the enforcement thereof.

Many communities are accepting their responsibility with regard to bicycle safety through these three steps. In many instances, the program has been widened to include the education of the individual rider and an examination to determine his knowledge of the bicycle as a machine, the bicycle and the rider, the bicycle on the highway, and the passing of specific skill tests. Several organizations have set up definite merit-badge tests which measure skills as well as attitudes toward bicycle safety.

A typical example of rules for safe bicycle riding have been issued by the state of Texas. They read as follows:

1. Obey all traffic laws, signs and signals.
2. Display a white head lamp and a red tail light when riding between one-half hour after sunset and one-half hour before sunrise.
3. Be alert for traffic in all directions.
4. Give both pedestrians and motor vehicles the right of way.
5. Before leaving a driveway or crossing a street or highway, look both ways and wait for approaching traffic.
6. Do not ride on streets where there is considerable traffic.
7. Do not ride alongside other cyclists. Ride in single file.
8. Do not ride double nor do trick riding on streets or highways.
9. Do not hitch to motor vehicles or street cars.
10. Do not play riding games on streets or highways.
11. Always keep your bicycle in good condition.
12. Ride near the right-hand pavement edge.

The development of skill tests is still in the experimental stage, and the following issued by the Boy Scouts of America of White Plains, N. Y., is typical of what is being done by many organizations and communities throughout the country.

1. Ride slowly 75 feet in a straight 3 foot wide lane on level ground in not less than one half minute without touching another border line.
2. Ride twice around a 4 foot wide circular lane (inner circle having a 20 foot diameter) without touching either border line and using only the left hand to steer the bicycle when riding in a clockwise direction. Ride the same lane in a counter clockwise direction, using the right handle to steer.
3. Demonstrate the correct method of "ankling" a bicycle in contrast to "bike pushing" and "arch braking."
4. Demonstrate simple mounting, dismounting and quick stopping without skidding the rear wheel.

While skill tests are undoubtedly valuable, the real remedy lies largely in education of the bicyclist in the rules of the road, and the enforcement of the

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Teaching Old Dogs New Traffic Tricks

By BURTON W. MARSH

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How pleasantly I remember the glorious winters of my boyhood in New England! Park Avenue, where my home was located, was a wide avenue, and I recall vividly my keen interest in watching what seemed to be hundreds of horse-drawn sleighs going by, as they started a regular Saturday-afternoon One Mile Race right in front of my home. No automobile interfered with those races.

And, somewhat later, well do I recall how several of us boys would go out onto Park Avenue and watch an old Reo car, one of the very first, chug-chugging about, steered by Mr. Flagg who lived directly opposite us. Frequently the car would come to a wheezing stop and it was then our pleasure to watch Mr. Flagg attempt to get it going again. We thought it great sport to ask with feigned innocence if he thought that he could fix it shortly. And we were always ready to run if his ire at the difficulties he was encountering with the contraption caused him to resent our remarks.

How different were those days—yet they were only about three short decades ago! These personal incidents bring out a very important point. A large proportion of present-day adults were brought up and formed their early habits in the days of sleigh-bells and reins. The present highway traffic problem has come with stunning rapidity. From a country of almost no "horseless carriages" to thirty million cars in a period of about three decades! This is a truly revolutionary change!

Today we have a serious and ever-growing traffic problem, two aspects of which are predominant: (1) traffic crashes; (2) delays, disorder and inconvenience.

Many kinds of activities are essential to an effective attack on the traffic problem. We must know the facts. There must be reasonable regulations. Proper organization is of basic importance. Then there must be vigorous continuing programs of engineering, education and enforcement. The time will come when the engineer will have designed and built highway facilities which will protect the individual against many present hazards. But, such physical changes will require years. In the meantime, we must find ways to get the individual driver and pedestrian to take better care of himself. What are the problems involved?

Major Needs of Individuals

Broadly speaking, there are two major needs of individuals in dealing successfully with modern traffic situations:

(1) The individual must make much better adjustments to traffic conditions. To do so, he needs better understanding of traffic and its hazards, and of his rights and responsibilities. He must know his limitations and those of any car which he drives. Better traffic judgment and in many cases, greatly improved attitudes are necessary.

(2) As a unit of society, the individual must be brought to understand what organized society is trying to do in order to deal effectively with the traffic situation. There must be developed a public opinion which will support powerful, beneficial programs and will insist upon the elimination of evils. Public opinion must be such that drivers guilty of unfair and hazardous practices will lose caste in their group.

Splendid progress has been made with children of grade school age and more recently with high school youths in preparing them for living happily and reasonably in this Motor Age. Much less satisfactory progress has been made in dealing with adults on these same matters. This is well illustrated by a recent study in Washington, D. C., which shows that persons more than 55 years of age are six times as likely to be killed while pedestrians as are school children aged 10 to 14. The problem of aiding adults to become readjusted to modern traffic needs is indeed a huge one. Of the 40,000,000 persons driving cars today, the great bulk are adults. Adults are often "set" in their ways and resentful of efforts to change them.

Many think that they are better drivers and walkers than they really are. As they grow older their physical powers diminish. For example, AAA tests of more than five thousand persons showed that persons aged 50-60 would stand only 60 per cent as much glare as persons aged 20-25. Adults do not meet regularly in organized groups under trained teachers.

Nevertheless, the job of modifying adult actions and attitudes must be done, for we will not be satisfied to see the serious crash toll and inconvenience in street use continue.

How Can These Two Major Needs Be Met?

A considerable body of opinion contends that the best way to improve traffic situations is by scaring people. In recent years the "horror-and-fright" approach has been common. But it has not been successful nor will it ever be. We should discard this approach forthwith.

Is strict enforcement the best way to improve the actions of individuals in traffic? Many persons believe that it is. They believe that strict enforcement, more arrests, more fines, more imprisonments, will largely solve the problem.

Let us examine this viewpoint. In a democracy in non-emergency times, any law to be successful must have the free-will support of the majority. Those who look to enforcement as the major weapon, reason that a sense of being under discipline and fear of punishment must be instilled in the minds and hearts of the people. There must be developed, they say, the attitude that "you can't get away with it if you violate a traffic regulation."

Isn't it clear that the success of such a theory is dependent upon there being a sufficient number of enforcement officers to carry out the discipline? The average individual must see an officer often enough truly to fear arrest and its consequences and he must feel that he is under rather constant police surveillance. Now we know that there are not enough officers to accomplish this result, and it seems reasonable to conclude that there will never be enough officers to create and continue this attitude of mind through enforcement alone. The "pinch-'em, fine-'em" theory of enforcement also takes too much time per arrest and per court case. While the officer is making the arrest and carrying through the court case, there may be dozens of other violations occurring in his district.

Enforcement has its place and a very important one, but it should not be over-emphasized. Voluntary observance is the true objective of successful enforcement and it should be the major objective of all police officers. How can the police build up voluntary observance? By giving major attention to educational contacts with the great mass of well-meaning, but often thoughtless, sometimes uninformed or preoccupied, and frequently non-alert drivers and pedestrians. Also, by handling arrest cases, not as though the average criminal were being dealt with, but in a way which emphasizes that the police are seeking the same objective as the individual—namely, crash reduction and greater convenience in the highway use. Happily, a number of police leaders are now developing programs along these lines, as for example in Wichita, Kansas, the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, in England and elsewhere.

There is a certain small percentage of the population for which enforcement is the only suitable weapon. For those persons, enforcement must be strict and for repeated offenses, increasingly more severe. In addition, support is warranted for that type of enforcement which is used by modern "accident investigation squads," whereby the individual causing an accident by his violation, is punished appropriately.

States with well administered drivers' license laws require a new driver to prove that he knows important traffic regulations, that he understands signs and signals, and that he can drive reasonably well. There are also tests of the driver's vision. Through appropriate improvements in driver licensing procedures, very much indeed can be accomplished in educating the individual, improving his attitude, and producing in him a friendly support for what officials are trying to do, through the voice which he has in formulating public opinion. While the potentialities of the licensing procedure are very great, a thorough discussion is beyond the scope of this article.

There are also those who say that the major need is for better laws. For one thing, many traffic laws are stated in a manner too complicated for the average individual to understand. Furthermore, some of them are out-of-date and not well suited to modern needs.

Education Main Answer

The major improvement in traffic acts and attitudes of individuals in the next few years must be produced through education.

Two kinds of education warrant consideration. One may be termed general public education such as that through newspaper articles, radio programs, posters, films, meetings. In the past few years there have been definite indications that sensible programs of this sort are very valuable. We must look to improved programs of public enlightenment for an important part of the gain to be made. In 1938, Providence had the best fatality record ever produced by a large American city, with 16 deaths or a rate of about six per 100,000 population. While there was a fine general program, much of the credit for Providence's record must be attributed to an outstanding program of public education in which newspapers, radio, talks, explanatory cards widely distributed, were important features.

However, many of these programs are not as effective as they might be, because so often they do not deal with the specific needs of individuals. We have been repeatedly exhorted to "be careful," "drive safely," and yet we find ourselves wondering just how to interpret those general and indefinite cautions in terms of specific practices.

For example, consider the usual city programs of traffic education. They have given much emphasis to driver education, and this is necessary. However, facts conclusively show that in cities the great majority of fatalities are occurring to pedestrians. And careful studies have been made by several cities and states indicate that it is errors of pedestrians themselves which are primarily responsible for their being killed. Furthermore, the facts show that pedestrian fatalities principally involve those of middle-age and older, and the great majority of them occur at night. Yet how little of our educational procedure has been directed to the pedestrian, especially the pedestrian of middle-age or older, and particularly as regards the hazards of darkness.

It seems reasonable to conclude, therefore, that general educational programs can do very much, but that there is great need for making such education more specific and for fitting it more accurately to main needs as shown by careful analysis of facts.

A second kind of education generally produces better results. It might be termed "selective education," meaning any type of education which is directed toward the specific major needs of a particular group, class, or other classification of persons. We have considerable evidence that sound programs of this type are productive of good results. Perhaps the best example is the grade school program. The main specific job to be done is clear-cut. It is to train children to play away from traffic and to use streets wisely as pedestrians and cyclists. Eight or ten simple rules cover the need for those afoot and about the same number suffice for cyclists. Once the rules are known, they must be developed into habits. There are almost daily opportunities to teach this group and trained teachers do the work. Children of grade school age constitute the only age group which has shown a downward trend in its fatality rate in the past 15 years. In sharp contrast, the death rate of older persons has nearly doubled in the same period.

Another illustration of the value of selective education is the improvements produced by the commercial driver group. Commercial drivers have shown a downward trend in their fatality rate for a number of years, while drivers of private passenger cars have shown very serious increases.

Here is another interesting example from a progressive community in the Midwest. It was found that an undue proportion of serious accidents was occurring to children of a certain foreign-born parentage. Two alert officers of the same nationality were delegated to deal with the problem. They spent their time in the districts where those people lived. Whenever they found children playing in the streets, the officers took them to their homes and talked to parents in their own language. In a remarkably short period, this district showed a marked improvement in its accident record.

Assuming then that the major accomplishments in the near future are going to be obtained by improved educational methods, let us consider this problem further.

Sound Bases for a Traffic Educational Program

In approaching this educational task for adults, a fundamental consideration is "What characteristics of individuals are those with which we must deal?" These may be roughly grouped into several classes:

(1) Physical and emotional characteristics. There are some persons who are handicapped in their use of the streets by physical and emotional conditions. A number of persons have vision difficulties of a sufficiently serious nature to affect their ability to drive safely. Others are emotionally not well balanced. Some "blow up" in an emergency, for example. Surely it is important that the individual understand his physical and emotional deficiencies and that he make corrections or compensations for them. However, these factors are not the major ones in crash causation.

(2) Knowledge. Polls among thousands of drivers made by the American Automobile Association and its affiliated Motor Clubs have shown that there is an amazing lack of knowledge regarding important traffic regulations. From one-in-ten to more than one-in-three misunderstood important rules regarding right-of-way. Surprisingly large percentages, extending in some cases to over 50 per cent, did not know the speed limits set forth in their jurisdiction, while very large percentages did not know the distances required to stop at various speeds—particularly the greatly increased distances required at the higher speeds. Lack of knowledge is a major factor in causing crashes and in producing inconvenience in the use of our streets.

Closely associated with knowledge and putting knowledge into practical operation are skills, habits and judgment. A brief period of observation of traffic practices will convince any intelligent observer that there is room for very great improvement in these three important characteristics. Proper development of judgment, skills and habits must come from actual use of the highways.

(3) Attitudes. Probably the most important characteristic of all is one's attitude. Many people still take pride in driving at excessive speeds, in evading arrests and penalties, in pursuing a policy of rugged individualism and non-cooperation with police officers, and in other ways. Such attitudes are out of key with traffic needs and show that there is a very great need for improvement.

These various characteristics are so important that we have seen fit to form them diagrammatically into an arch made up of stones designated as main characteristics needed for expert, sportsmanlike driving. The keystone of the arch is attitude.

As further background for a sound educational program, there must be a sensible pattern or "set of plans and specifications" to which to build. There must be reasonable laws and a sensible theory of street use involving both pedestrians and motorists, which takes due account of modern traffic needs. Agreement must be reached as to what are the reasonable rights and responsibilities of drivers and pedestrians.

We must be willing to start with individuals as they are, and to deal with them on the basis of motives which will impel them to act fairly and wisely. Most individuals will do those things which they believe are in their best interests. They will do much to protect loved ones. They will go to great lengths to accord with the customs or mores of their group—to avoid "losing caste." Somehow, sportsmanlike driving and sensible walking must become the accepted pattern; they must constitute "the thing to do."

There must also be clearly set forth the major educational objectives for the several age groups and other special classifications. Once these objectives have been crystallized and we understand just what the job consists of for each selected group, we shall certainly make much greater progress.

Another essential factor in any effective educational program is adequacy of attack. Heretofore, all too little energy, thinking, planning have been devoted to improving our traffic situation through adult education. In fact, this has been one of the major difficulties in the past. Happily, in the last year or two, there has been a very heartening opening of the purse-strings. New money, additional men—and, be it noted, better trained men—are being assigned to the task.

These are some of the sound bases which are necessary for an effective program. One other will be presented—one which warrants considerable attention.

Adults, in large proportion, have never been trained properly for use of streets and highways either afoot or at the wheel. Of course, a great many have trained themselves through a laborious process involving considerable trial-and-error and are good drivers and walkers today. But many a person lacking proper training has developed bad habits, wrong attitudes, misunderstandings. How often have we heard of a driver who has hit a pedestrian at night saying, "Why I didn't see him until he was right in front of my car." And very often that is true. But the proper corrections for that dif-

ficulty should have been better headlight maintenance, use of proper eye glasses, or most fundamental of all, reduction of speed so that there would have been time to avoid a crash after seeing the pedestrian.

The adult training job divides into two parts. For those who are learning to drive, there must be a proper program of traffic education and training. For those who already drive, but have developed bad habits, attitudes, or judgment, a difficult re-training procedure is needed if the person is to be allowed to continue to drive. Unless we are willing to see an entirely undue number of crashes and an entirely unsatisfactory degree of highway inconvenience, effective re-training programs are essential.

In the recent past, very encouraging progress has been made in adult driver education and training. Some illustrations may be interesting.

Adult Driver Training Programs

The driver training program which has probably been longest in effective operation is that involving commercial drivers. The better companies have set up such splendid programs, coupled with effective vehicle maintenance, good discipline and supervision, and in many cases a system of rewards or demerits, that astonishing records of miles driven without accidents have been reported by fleet groups. Up to May 16, 1938, the best all-time no-accident record reported by a commercial fleet to the National Safety Council was 2,934,810 no-accident miles, reported by the Panhandle Refining Company, Wichita Falls, Texas. The next best record was nearly 2,000,000 miles and six fleets reported over a 1,000,000 no-accident miles.

Obviously those training commercial drivers have advantages which do not exist for the great mass of individual drivers. Nevertheless, commercial driver programs indicate what can be accomplished.

Nearly two years ago, teachers from C.C.C. camps in Louisiana and Mississippi attended a special teacher training course conducted by staff educators of the American Automobile Association, in which they were prepared to train the drivers of the C.C.C. camp trucks. As a result of this program some 17,000 drivers are being trained each year. Other C.C.C. groups are carrying on similar activities.

In Seattle, Washington, St. Paul, Minnesota, and in many other places, including the state of Pennsylvania, excellent programs of adult driver education and training have been instituted through properly planned and well supervised W.P.A. activities. Generally these are held in cooperation with other agencies. The program in Pennsylvania has the exceedingly valuable cooperation and leadership of the Pennsylvania Motor Police under its energetic and far-sighted leader, Admiral Percy W. Foote. He envisions the day when every person desiring to drive will be required to complete satisfactorily a comprehensive course of education, training and testing. Training centers are being set up all over the state. Teachers are being trained under direction of a staff educator of the American Automobile Association and Pennsylvania Motor Police specialists who have given the subject much study. The state Department of Public Instruction is cooperating actively, as are local AAA Motor Clubs where the program is being carried on effectively. The major reasons for the success of these programs are: the selection of persons who can teach, proper training of teachers, a thorough and complete training program including a tested road training plan, insistence upon high standards, use of both written and road tests to assure a satisfactory degree of progress before the learner completes his course.

In the past few years a number of AAA Motor Clubs have instituted comprehensive driver training programs. Contrary to the expectation of some, there has been a very great demand for the high type of driver training which is provided at cost. The objective of such program is not merely to "get the person by" the driver license examiner, but to produce a driver who will be able to meet traffic conditions with confidence and ability. There is instruction in traffic fundamentals and on major traffic laws, followed by extensive behind-the-wheel instruction in dual control driver training cars. These have auxiliary clutch and brake pedals so that if need be, the instructor may take over control of the car to prevent trouble. Instructors are given careful training in the use of methods which have been proved to be effective. Several auxiliary training devices are being utilized effectively, including a brake reaction detonator, which demonstrates to the individual the distance his car travels after a signal is received to stop it and before the

brake is in effective operation. The device also marks the distance required to brake the car to a stop from various speeds. Another training device is called the "driving jerk recorder." It records jerky driving involving too rapid acceleration or deceleration.

In several places programs are being conducted for re-training drivers who seem to have the faculty of being on hand when trouble occurs. Preliminary to the re-training process, there must be a diagnosis of the driver's difficulties. This is accomplished through a study of his case history, through testing various important physical characteristics, discussion of his problems, attempts to ascertain wrong attitudes, and in some instances through observing his driving, either by accompanying him in a car or by trailing him as he drives.

While much remains to be learned about the most effective techniques for re-training, encouraging progress has been made. Consider the case of a driver in the Chicago area. This driver came to the Chicago Motor Club, where he told George Barton, the specialist, that if he could not improve his driving record, he was going to lose his job. An analysis of his case showed two serious difficulties: a serious visual defect and nervousness. The specialist was able to suggest ways of avoiding trouble because of the nervous condition, proper eyeglasses greatly improved vision, and greater confidence in driving was developed by some re-training activities in the car. The result—he kept his job. The State of Rhode Island has for some time been doing work along this line with considerable success, often finding that a major need was to change the attitude of the individual. Some splendid activities of this type are being carried on through the Wichita, Kansas, Police Department.

There are a great many other kinds of activities directed toward influencing the traffic behavior of adults. In fact, the great variety of efforts at least suggests that there is realization of the great need for education, but a considerable lack of knowledge on the part of those directing such efforts, of how best to carry on the educational process. Furthermore, techniques for testing the relative value of various educational programs have been all too little used—if as I assume, such techniques are known by educational specialists.

One specialized educational plan is a "School for Traffic Violators." Instead of being fined or imprisoned, certain juvenile, poor or other special classes of violators may attend a Violators' School, usually at night. In some such schools, they must pass an examination satisfactorily before their court record is cleared. Perhaps a score of cities now conduct such "schools." Wichita, St. Louis, Berkeley and some other cities have analyzed records of persons who attended the schools, seeking to appraise results. Various conclusions have been reached, one of the most logical being that the value of the school depends upon how well it is planned, organized, and conducted. A major point of weakness in using as instructors persons who not only do not know how to teach, but who also lack knowledge of the main objectives to be sought.

Lack of space prevents discussion of uses of newspapers, magazines, radio, films and film strips, posters, talks and the various other media for traffic education purposes. In general, however, very considerable improvements have been evident in the programs of the main media for public information in the past few years.

Organizing for Community Action

Thus far, we have dealt mainly with educating individuals. The other main job mentioned earlier is to stir the public will to favorable action. Recently much progress has been made along this line, chiefly as the result of sound organization.

Governors and Mayors have appointed Traffic Commissions made up of the principal officials concerned with traffic conditions and representatives of civic, professional and business organizations which are interested. Such commissions are the "clearing house" for ideas and plans for traffic improvement. They select the activities which are most needed and then build up public support to help get them carried out. The best of these Commissions, such as that in Milwaukee, have demonstrated the inherent value of the idea.

Some Serious Problems on Which Leaders in Education Can Help

Some of us who are traffic specialists have seen for years the great need for better informed individuals and proper public opinion. We've studied educational methods, but we are not educators. We've encountered many serious problems concerning which leaders in education can help—yes,

must help if we are to make desired progress. Here are some typical ones:

1. Who should direct, and who carry on, the various parts of the adult educational job?
2. What appeals will be most effective with various age groups, and other special classifications?
3. Most traffic deaths in cities involve pedestrians of middle age and older, principally at night. How is the best way to tackle that educational job?
4. We are soon going to begin to have a large percentage of aged drivers, with their ever-increasing infirmities. How should we prepare educationally for the numerous problems which are bound to arise?
5. How do educators suggest that we can most quickly cause sportsmanlike driving to become the accepted pattern, "the thing to do"?
6. Through inviting newspaper writers to one-week traffic "seminars," the C.I.T. Safety Foundation has found that scribes are keenly interested in obtaining a better understanding of traffic problems and needs. How can newspaper, radio and film leaders everywhere be so informed?
7. How can sound traffic objectives of public officials more rapidly and fully obtain the support of vigorous public opinion?
8. How best can non-English reading, low intelligence, and handicapped groups be reached?
9. How can police be best prepared to attain their real main objective in traffic—voluntary observance?
10. For adults learning to drive, what is the relative importance of: understanding main facts and factors, developing proper sense of responsibility, developing proper attitude and sound judgment, acquiring driving skill, developing proper habits?
11. What educational techniques can help most in driver re-training work, and how and by whom should they be used?
12. In an age when speed and hurry are so much in the minds of people, how can the importance of avoiding excessive driving speed best be taught?

Adult traffic education is a major need today. Some good work is being done, and interest is increasing, but very much remains to be done. Much of the present effort to improve traffic practices of adults is capable of tremendous improvement. Educational leaders can make additional major contributions because of their specialized training. Phi Delta Kappans are those to whom we laymen must especially look, for membership therein indicates that you have already demonstrated the sort of "stuff" it take to do this job. Won't you help?

Community Agencies

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gram of the schools in the eyes of the organizations represented on this committee.

It is necessary for school, home, and community to cooperate fully and constantly to insure the formation of the proper safety habits and attitudes on the part of the school child. Perhaps of paramount importance is the safety consciousness which the young child acquires when some consideration is given to accident avoidance at home in the family group. The mother who creates a well-ordered home life makes habits of safety automatic. For the majority of pupils, however, we shall have to look to the teacher. There are innumerable opportunities in the school day to encourage the pupil to acquire responsibility for his own safety, whether it be at school, at home, on the roadway, or at play. Every community will gladly support such a program. Of chief concern to the teacher and administrator, however, must be the fact that any assistance received by schools from outside agencies should be consistent with the best educational practice and procedure possible.

Bicycles

(Continued from page 186)

laws as they concern the regulation of vehicles on streets and highways. In those communities where these two factors have been given special attention, the accident rate has fallen very perceptibly. What is most needed now is the acceptance by state motor vehicle departments of their share of responsibility for enforcement. They, together with the individual rider and the educational forces of a state, working together can do much to eliminate the hazards now existent and remove the bicycle from the list of contributing causes to the high accident toll on our highways.

Order Several Copies of
Teaching as a Man's Job
Distribute them to
high school and college students

Training for Leadership on the Safety Front

By HERBERT J. STACK

THERE is no field in which intelligent leadership is more needed today than in the new "war on accidents." There is a real demand for expert guidance on the part of official and private agencies that are leading the offensive of this new war. City and state officials are saying, "We need better trained police officers." Traffic authorities are asking for skilled engineers. School superintendents are looking for improved teaching and supervision of safety activities. Camp directors are seeking trained leadership in water safety. Insurance companies and large commercial fleets are in need of expert supervision of their safety activities. Industries and transportation agencies are searching for skilled leaders to direct their accident prevention activities.

Where are we to secure this skilled personnel? Who is to prepare technically trained people to take over the supervision of safety activities in the community and in the state? A few years ago there was little instruction, and few of the techniques of accident prevention had even been developed. Little was known of the ways in which well organized programs should be organized; the science of accident prevention had not arrived. Those were the days of hit-and-miss safety campaigns or "drives," characterized by some as the period of "safety by exhortation." During the last few years, however, there has been a remarkable development of educational centers throughout the country to train leaders in various fields of safety. Most of these centers have been established at universities, but others have been organized by safety agencies themselves to provide better training for supervisory officials. It is the purpose of this article to describe some of the outstanding educational safety centers in the country.

There are four important directions in which leadership training is now moving. One trend is in the improvement of police activities and the training of traffic engineers. A second, and one of the most important and widespread moves, is in the field of child and adult safety education. It is a significant fact that in these two fields alone, more than ninety fellowships or scholarships, paying annual stipends of up to $1,200 each, are now available in three universities. The third trend is in the training of leaders in industrial and transportation safety, another highly important field. The last is in a better preparation of specialists in water safety—one of the movements that has been under way for a longer period, largely as a result of the influence of the American Red Cross.

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The following are some of the outstanding educational projects now in operation in this country.

THE NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY TRAFFIC INSTITUTE

The Traffic Institute at Northwestern University has won recognition as a center for training police officers in the science of traffic safety. This Institute is organized as a part of the program of the International Association of Chiefs of Police, and is largely supported by a grant of funds from the Automotive Safety Foundation and through fellowships provided by Alfred P. Sloan, Jr., and James S. Kemper. The first short course was given in 1933 and since that time 596 men have been trained in short courses on the campus, while 568 men have attended short courses at other universities sponsored by the Institute and by the International Association of Chiefs of Police, local and state police groups.

The full-time fellowships provided by the Sloan and Kemper grants attract outstanding police officers from city and state departments who spend the year at Northwestern in advanced study.

One of the features of the Institute that gives it a strong influence, is the field work carried on by the Director, Lieutenant F. M. Kreml, and his staff in setting up Accident Prevention Bureaus in municipal and state police departments. Up to date, eighteen city and state police departments have in-

stalled such Bureaus, while five other cities are soon to make installations.

The Institute, over a period of years, has had a powerful effect on the improvement of traffic control and enforcement in the country through its training courses, research, and publications.

The National Police Academy of the Federal Bureau of Investigation

The Police Academy of the Federal Bureau of Investigation is the outstanding training school for advanced police training in the country. Established in 1935 by J. Edgar Hoover, nine classes have attended this school, with an enrollment of 297 police officers in regular classes and 81 officers in re-training courses.

The instruction at the Academy is carried on largely by the faculty that teaches Special Agents for the F.B.I., and features criminal investigation and improved laboratory methods in the science and techniques of police work. In addition, as a part of the course, advanced instruction is given in enforcement, engineering and education phases of traffic safety, so that graduates can take over positions of responsibility in the police departments from which they are on a leave of absence.

National Police Academy graduates, a highly selected and well trained group, are to be found in most important cities in the country, directing the training of police officers and leading in the new move for scientific law enforcement and crime prevention.

The Bureau of Public Safety Rutgers University

A significant contribution to traffic safety is being made by Rutgers University, New Jersey, which in 1937 established a Bureau of Public Safety to carry on traffic officers' training schools and other public safety education courses.

This Bureau, unlike most organizations which undertake training of this type, is an integral part of the University. Rutgers pioneered in making its Safety Bureau an inherent part of the program of a state university. The head of the Bureau, Lawrence B. Tipton, ranks as an assistant professor, and the University grants certificates to those who meet the requirements of the curriculum.

Last year, four courses for traffic training and control were conducted, together with a course in criminal science stressing laboratory methods in the detection and solution of crime. The program this year includes three institutes for police chiefs, three twelve-week courses in traffic education, engineering, and enforcement for officers who wish to specialize further in these phases of traffic control, and a second course in criminal science. In the second semester the Bureau will launch a regional institute for traffic engineering, a course in criminal law and public speaking for police, a program for the prevention of juvenile delinquency, and three home safety institutes.

The Bureau is also providing more than one hundred New Jersey police departments with a four-month course in public relations, in preparation for the handling of the volume of traffic which the state will experience during New York's World's Fair.

During the academic year 1938-39, more than 800 were enrolled in various short courses, institutes, and one-day conferences conducted by the Bureau. Several of these courses carry college credits, but most are non-credit, intensive training programs for police officers.

Yale Bureau for Street Traffic Research

Founded in 1926, at Harvard University, as the Albert Russel Erskine Bureau for Street Traffic Research, the Bureau is now at Yale University. Under the direction of Dr. Miller McClintock, the Bureau has for its main function the training of traffic engineers. Since its inception the Bureau has worked on the theory that the nation's traffic ills are comparable to other maladies, and that they can be remedied only by application of scientifically developed and proven methods. For this reason the Bureau has laid emphasis upon research in traffic engineering as the key to the correction of our motor vehicle transportation difficulties. At present 22 graduate students are taking intensive professional training at the Bureau under fellowship awards. Fifteen of these awards were made possible through a grant by the Automotive Safety Foundation and seven through a grant from Alfred P. Sloan, Jr.

Four courses are offered by the Bureau. These cover the principles, administration, and techniques of such traffic control elements as roadway design and lighting, mechanical control by signs, signals, markings and islands, rules and regula-

tions; surveys and reports; organization and zoning control.

Graduates of the Bureau now hold important positions in highway and traffic engineering departments of state and city governments, testifying to the demands for trained personnel in this field.

The Center for Safety Education New York University

The Center for Safety Education at New York University was organized in July, 1938, in answer to a growing and insistent demand for better teaching of safety. In granting funds for the establishment of the Center, the National Conservation Bureau was animated by the belief that the education of such teachers had become the outstanding task in the safety education field.

The establishment of the Center represented, therefore, a new milestone on the long road toward achieving security in modern life. The scope of the Center's activities extends over the entire field of safety education. The curriculum comprises ten courses in safety education, including a research seminar; study of materials, methods, and administration of safety courses in elementary and secondary schools; safety procedures in vocational and physical education classes; home safety and first aid. It also includes one course in driver education and traffic safety, two courses in industrial safety, and two in traffic safety for police.

In addition to giving courses, the Center conducts research in fields of safety, prepares manuals and courses of study, and furnishes field service for schools and teacher-education institutions.

For the academic year 1938-39, the Center awarded 28 fellowships and scholarships to men and women who had done distinguished work in varied phases of teaching and safety. Sixteen states are represented in the group. All are working on theses and studies which, it is hoped, will provide valuable contributions to improve safety education programs and teaching techniques, and thus lead to substantial reductions in the national accident toll.

It is significant to note that the enrollment in various courses conducted by the Center this year exceeded 300. Of the holders of fellowships, nine students have already passed the matriculation examinations for the doctorate.

During the intersession period in June, 1939, the Center will award 60 scholarships for the three courses. Sixty educators from colleges and public schools will be invited to spend the month at the Safety Curriculum Workshop at New York University.

Other Safety Centers

In recent years there has been an extensive development of other types of training centers besides those mentioned. Among these one would include the National Institute for Traffic Training, held at the University of Michigan during the summer of 1938. This enrolled several hundred police officers, engineers, and educators who were studying various phases of traffic safety. Recently at Pennsylvania State College another Institute for Traffic Safety was organized under the direction of Professor Amos Neyhart, and a similar center has been established at Purdue University. Between thirty and forty colleges will conduct summer school courses in safety education during the coming summer. Much of this work has been influenced by the American Automobile Association and the National Conservation Bureau.

Many other types of safety schools have been set up by W.P.A. groups in various states. State and local police have likewise conducted schools for the training of police officers. Outside the traffic safety field the American Red Cross has made a notable contribution in the setting up of training centers for directors of water-safety activities at camps and supervised pools and beaches, with thousands of graduates now available for the specialized work of water safety. Moreover, the American Camping Association, the National Recreation Association, the National Fire Protection Association, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, the National Safety Council, and a score of other organizations have been doing valuable work in the training of lay workers, teachers, and other leaders in various phases of safety work. In the field of industrial safety, while comparatively few university courses have been established, local safety councils, insurance companies, and industries have been active in setting up institutes or training centers for the preparation of safety supervisors who are working in industry.

We have gone far in the last few years in this educational program for the safety front. Safety is a new field for college graduates.

The National Safety Council and Safety Education

By MARIAN TELFORD

THE National Safety Council is a cooperative membership organization dedicated to the prevention of all types of accidental deaths and injuries. Throughout the 25 years of its existence the Council has devoted its resources and energies solely to safety work in industrial establishments, on streets and highways, at home and in schools.

The educational program of the organization is carried forward through its Child Education Section and Education Division.

The Child Education Section is composed of member schools and school systems and interested individuals desirous of exchanging information. The major objectives of the Section are to serve as a clearinghouse for current information on all phases of safety instruction in schools and colleges and to undertake the collection of data known to be of interest to the group. For example, data on liability for school safety patrols, cost of driver training, pros and cons on the movement to require that all school buses be painted red, white and blue and proposed mandatory legislation on safety education are now being collected. Since 44 state legislatures are now in session, or will be very shortly, a special procedure for gathering data on the last two topics has been developed. The Section functions through standing committees on Statistics, Safety Education in the Elementary Schools, Safety Education in the Secondary Schools, and State Safety Activities. The latter is an abbreviated name for the group that maintains contact with state departments of education. The organization of a committee on Safety Education in Teacher Training Institutions is now under consideration. The annual meeting of the section is held in conjunction with the annual Safety Congress in October. Committee meetings are held in February at the time and place of the convention of the American Association of School Administrators. M. C. Lefler, superintendent of schools, Lincoln, Nebraska, and J. Andrew Holley, director of curriculum, Oklahoma State Department of Public Instruction, are general chairman and vice chairman of the Section, respectively, for the current school year.

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The Education Division of the National Safety Council consists of those members of the staff who are engaged in work with the schools. The functions of the Division are as follows: to render aid in the development of state and city courses of study in safety, to assist in the in-training and in-service training of teachers, to encourage safety education on all levels, to encourage the development of school safety programs that will include all phases of safety education, to render field service without charge wherever desired and practicable, to cooperate with state and national organizations active in the school safety field, and to produce and publish materials of value to teachers and administrators. The major publication of the Division is *Safety Education, the Magazine of the Good Adventure.*

The Education Division is not the only group in the organization endeavoring to render service to schools. Through it arrangements can be made for various services from other divisions. For example, a member of the Public Safety Division staff recently conducted a school of instruction for school bus drivers in Arkansas. The Statistical Bureau sponsors the use of the Standard Student Accident Reporting System and annually publishes *Accident Facts,* widely and favorably known among educators as a source of authentic statistical data on accidents of all types. The Industrial Division cooperates closely in all aspects of vocational school safety work, thus making available the opinions of trained safety engineers. The Bureau of Information, the world's largest library on safety literature, aids in answering thousands of inquiries annually from schools and colleges.

Safety Education in the Elementary Schools

By GEORGIANA E. DOWNING

SAFETY education, as a part of the curriculum of the schools, has become a necessity if we accept the philosophy of education which says that the purpose of education is to fit the child to meet new situations in which he finds himself living.

Statistics of accidents, such as those below, are convincing evidence of the need for such teaching if the child is to be fitted to meet the environmental situations in which he finds himself today.

The statistics also provide one measuring stick for the evaluation of the effectiveness of the Safety Education. Failure is measured in accidents—minor, life crippling, and fatal; success, in the reduction of the number of accidents.

The schools believe, and we think rightly so, that the program of safety education has made a large contribution to the reduction of accidents. If the schools have made a contribution to accident reduction, then no further justification for such a program need be given. This article will be an attempt to show that a safety education program should be more than one of accident prevention and should contribute to those less easily measurable qualities sometimes listed under the heading of character or of personality.

Of what then shall such a program consist? There are three basic objectives: building of attitudes; formation of habits; and opportunities for fixing and practicing these habits. These objectives form the foundation of the safety program whether in pre-school, elementary, high school, college or in adult education groups.

The material and methods of presentation are the variables necessitated by the different age levels, mental abilities, and social backgrounds.

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In those schools which have the whole curriculum built around a core subject, with this curriculum carefully planned and with a means of measuring results, perhaps safety as a part of this plan, and not taught as a separate subject, would bring acceptable results.

However, in a school system where separate subjects are taught, the integration of safety with the subjects as the only means of teaching safety is not a satisfactory plan. A well-planned safety program, which by trial has been found to be satisfactory, is both a separate program and an integration of safety with other subjects.

If a safety program is to aid the children in living in the complicated and dangerous environment of the present day, then the first consideration in choosing the content of the course would be to find just what dangers are to be found and in what degree. The accident record provides this material. This accident record should include the usual record such as the one shown above and one compiled from the school and including the following data:

Absence from school, including number of days. Withdrawn on account of death. Not absent but injury treated by doctor, nurse, teacher, parent, self, others. Nature of injury. Location of occurrence of accident.

From this data the relative importance of the various accidents can be tabulated and the content of the course of study formed.

CHILD FATALITIES: CLEVELAND, OHIO

Accidental Deaths		1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
School Age 5 to 14	Traffic	43	44	34	20	19	24	20	18	23	13
	Home	6	15	9	9	6	12	6	10	7	6
	Public	18	18	19	9	10	14	11	6	7	15
Under School Age	Traffic	20	22	15	15	8	6	15	7	8	3
	Home	51	24	28	17	23	29	16	17	26	8
	Public	2	3	1	1	2	2	0	0	0	0

The arrangement of the data, however, is not according to the importance of the danger but according to the season. That is, the child is presented with the safety subject which he will be called upon to meet at the time he will be called upon to meet it. For example, the Cleveland Course of Study is arranged as follows: September—School Safety; October—Fire Prevention; November — Street Safety; December — Home Safety; January—Winter Safety; February—First Aid; March—First Aid; April—Spring Safety; May—Summer Safety; June—Summer Safety.

This content must be revised in the light of current needs. It must keep pace with the changing dangers.

The next point to consider is the method of presentation of the content. Going back to the statement of objectives—building of attitudes, formation of habits, opportunities for fixing of habits, we must answer first the question how best can we build these attitudes?

One method that has been found by experience to be acceptable, not only in reducing the number of accidents, but in building fine attitudes toward safety is the use of a Safety Council.

Such a council can be very effectively organized if all agencies in the city which are interested in the promotion of safety can be utilized as sources of material and of interest. In Cleveland, the police department, the auto clubs, the Cleveland Safety Council, the National Safety Council, the American Red Cross and the National Conservation Bureau are the agencies which have been utilized.

These agencies function through the school administration for each building. In each building seven groups are elected by the pupils, following a nomination procedure in which the teacher shares. These seven groups are: "Clean-up," "Halls," "Auditorium," "Patrol," "Ushers," and two "Service" groups. The members of these seven groups form the school safety council. Once in two weeks the members of each group meet with their teacher-adviser, to discuss the problems of the school and of the group. On the alternate weeks, the members of these seven groups meet as a whole, as the Safety Council. At these meetings, reports of individual groups, of special committees, and of other interested persons are made. A free discussion from the floor is encouraged. Homeroom classes are the guests of the safety council from time to time.

The final units in the organization of a safety council program are the homerooms. The members of the safety council are elected from the homerooms, and report to the homerooms the discussions, recommendations and conclusions of the Safety Council. Much of the work of the school centers in these homerooms.

From this brief summary of the work of the Citizenship and Safety Council it should be evident that here is a practical situation for group activity, a miniature government with an opportunity for building attitudes of a good citizen and practicing them. Here all the activities of the school are tied together.

At first glance, the time consumed may seem an objectionable factor. In reality, the time is saved in the administration of the building and in lessening of the usual behavior problems which have to be met by the teacher of the office.

In addition, for the upper elementary grades, either by radio or by lessons, particular safety topics may be given.

The safety work in the upper elementary grades is also integrated with various subjects. For example, science presents many opportunities for Safety instruction as in the use of electrical appliances, knowledge of poison weeds and insects.

The Physical Education department offers opportunities for safe play in games including both the knowledge of correct handling of apparatus and of the body.

Through the Hygiene lessons, knowledge of eyesight and hearing are made to fit into the safety program. In Art posters and bulletins on safety subjects make the integration of the two practical.

Reading offers another opportunity for a safety tie-up. The Safety Council meetings form the most ideal type of audience motivation for oral English.

We have only to become safety minded to find excellent opportunities in various subjects for integration of safety with a given subject.

In the lower elementary grades the acceptable attitudes toward safety can be built profitably through a modified form of club, through stories, and through demonstrations, and through dramatizations.

The fixing of habits, such as the safe way to

carry chairs, to use sharp instruments as scissors, to cross the street, putting toys and clothing away, finds ample room for practice in the situations which the children meet.

Reading of charts, and later of books about safety, making of charts, handwork connected with safety, talks by the children on various topics help to integrate the safety program with other subjects.

The radio has been found to be an acceptable medium for both upper and lower elementary groups. Perhaps it deserves to be treated as a separate topic. The radio lessons as presented in Cleveland are an integral part of the curriculum. The lessons are built on the course of study. The children participate in the lesson during the broadcast by answering questions, discussing the slides, and demonstrating the points mentioned.

The lessons are carefully planned and written. On the average, each lesson lasting fifteen minutes on the air has had twenty hours of time for writing.

They are much more carefully planned than the regular classroom teacher would have time to plan them and form for her a pattern in source material and type of presentation to be used for the current year and during the alternate year when the radio lessons are given for another age level.

Visual material such as pictures, slides, movies, graphs, posters, etc., are an aid to safety program just as they are an aid to any learning. The radio and the homeroom class period as well as assembly periods find the visual aids useful tools. However, because we see a picture about a traffic hazard it does not follow that we automatically use it as an aid to learning. Fear as a motive of instruction is not acceptable. We need much more study on the type of visual material which is constructive and a great deal more care in discarding visual material which is negative and which is written from an adult point of vew.

In planning a safety program we endeavor to build correct attitudes both toward the immediate safety situations which the child has to face and toward the acting as a "good citizen." We endeavor to find situations in which the child can practice the safety he knows. This is difficult, as the school meets the child comparatively few hours a day and then does not meet him in all the situations which he must face.

Also, many situations in safety are so dangerous that we dare not set up a situation for practice. For example, we may practice fire drills but we dare not present a real fire situation. We may give instruction in traffic hazards, may even present street crossings with lights, guards, unprotected, etc., but again there is a limit to the hazards which we dare set up.

There is also another difficulty in presenting life situations for the child. This is the danger of adverse emotional reactions which may be set up. Fear would provide the child with a protection in some instances, but there might be an accompanying reaction which would be more dangerous than the original hazard.

For this reason safety programs should be positive rather than negative, present the right situation, avoid "don't's," show what to do instead of what not to do. For example, we do not spend the emphasis upon "keep off the street," but upon interesting games and things to do where the child may play safely.

In conclusion, an acceptable safety program builds right attitudes with acceptable emotional reactions, presents opportunities for fixing and practicing right habits, has a separate course of study in safety built upon known needs presented at the season the need will have to be met, consciously integrates other subjects with safety.

Safety and Citizenship Councils which knit together the whole school, radio lessons, stories, dramatizations, demonstrations, and discussions are means by which the program may function.

Research Topics

1. What is the comparative effect of positive versus negative instruction in relation to safety teaching in the classroom?
2. What specific techniques may be applied in the evaluation of safety movies and other visual materials?
3. What are the procedures which successful teachers have used to develop proper safety attitudes on the part of pupils?
4. What information can we reasonably expect children in the elementary school to know regarding safety education?
5. What is the incidence of home accidents in the community and what type of program in the schools is best suited to prevent home accidents?
6. What scientific data can we develop to determine the feasibility of actual driving instruction in the public schools?

Vocational Opportunities in Safety Education

By MARIAN TELFORD

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LAST September, 7 men and women sat around a luncheon table. They represented four universities, state departments of education and motor vehicles, a state and a national safety organization. They were meeting in a state deservedly renowned for its public education system, they were discussing the further expansion of safety education in that system. After considerable discussion one of them remarked, "I wonder if we are all aware of the circle through which we have swung repeatedly during the last few months. It goes like this: the representatives of the colleges say that safety education courses for credit can be added to summer session programs on an experimental basis but they can remain in the schedule, and become a part of the regular winter schedule, only when teacher registration for those courses indicates a real need for them." When teachers are approached they say, "We are working for degrees, professional advancement. We must take those courses that will aid us to reach our objective most quickly. We'll take courses in safety education the minute having taken such a course is helpful in securing a new position or getting a better one." Superintendents, when asked why they do not make knowledge of safety education a factor in the employment of at least some of their teachers remark wistfully, "We'd like to do that, but we cannot do so until the state department of public instruction requires us to observe the law requiring safety instruction in the schools of this state." "Then," the speaker continued, "if one goes over to the state department of public instruction and makes inquiries on the observance of the safety teaching law he is informed, 'We'd like to enforce it, but we can't do so until the teacher training institutions provide opportunities for teachers to secure training in safety.' "

This story effectively illustrates one of the basic difficulties facing anyone desiring to make a career of safety teaching. Safety education is widely recognized by administrators as an integral part of a model school system. This recognition has come so recently, however, that responsibility for directing and financing a complete program is still being shifted from one group to another. Meanwhile, interested teachers and supervisors, reluctant to allow class after class of students to leave school without an appreciation of the importance of safety and some knowledge on how it may be attained, rearrange their schedules and revise their materials, thus voluntarily adding to their own already heavy load to make sure that safety is taught to children and youth now in school.

Perhaps this situation is changing. If so, it is changing slowly. In some few school systems, teachers and supervisors responsible for the safety program have been relieved of at least part of the duties that constituted a full load before the addition of this relatively new subject. Taking the country as a whole, however, the subject of safety probably is still taught and supervised in the vast majority of cases by individuals who have other work to do. There is little evidence, for example, to show that the several individuals formerly known as "directors of health" and now officially titled "directors of health and safety" have received assistance or compensation commensurate with their added responsibilities.

Moreover, there are some who think that safety will always be taught by the teachers of numerous other subjects. Those holding this belief point out that safety is not a definite thing in itself but is, rather, a quality of action, a way of living. They question special safety courses taught by special safety teachers on the ground that the subject cannot be an independent part of the program but must by the very nature of things be a part of the routine activities of the school, a part of the teach-

ing of citizenship, health, physical education, science and many other subjects. They hold that this is particularly true on the elementary school level. Some of them concede that such may not necessarily be the case in the secondary school, particularly in the schools offering behind-the-wheel instruction in driving.

This introductory presentation of some of the difficulties confronting those desiring to earn their living through safety education in the schools is made in the interests of realism, not to discourage anyone! The viewpoint of the writer of this article is very definitely this—"If you can find a pool deep enough for swimming, jump in. The water's fine!" There is something truly satisfying in the opportunity to contribute to the safety movement—particularly when the death rate decreases as it did for traffic deaths in 1938—as one goes about the generally serious and necessary business of earning his own living.

The types of position available in safety education at the present time appear to fall into six classes. These are: (1) supervisory positions in large city school systems, (2) supervisory positions in state departments of public instruction, (3) teaching, particularly driver training, (4) in secondary schools teaching graduate and undergraduate courses in teachers colleges and normal schools, (5) inspecting school plant, equipment and operating practices, (6) educational work with non-school organizations. Each one of these types of endeavor is described briefly below.

(1) Supervision: Detroit and Cleveland are excellent examples of large city school systems providing supervision of the school safety program by full-time employees of the Board of Education. The duties of the supervisors include the organization of school safety patrols and junior safety councils, the provision of in-service training for teachers, the preparation of teaching materials for classroom use, the collection of accident data throughout the school system and the use of such data in the development of a program that constantly reflects the changing needs of pupils, the investigation and testing of new procedures, such as behind-the-wheel instruction in driving, and many other types of work.

Several other city school safety supervisors work along similar lines but not all of them are free to give their entire time to safety education. Louisville has a director of health and safety, for example, while the safety supervisor of Green Bay's schools is a principal of a school.

(2) State Safety Supervisors: Payson Smith, when serving Massachusetts as its commissioner of education, added a supervisor of safety education to the personnel of the state department. In general the duties of this supervisor are somewhat similar to those of the city systems referred to in the preceding paragraph with one important variation. The state department supervisor engages in field work for the purpose of encouraging local schools to expand further their safety programs and gives those interested in doing so direct assistance in the preparation of materials, training of teachers, organization of patrols and so forth. Within the last two years a full-time safety supervisor has been added to the Louisiana Department of Education. New Jersey has added the word "safety" to the title of its health director. Whether this already busy and highly competent official was given an assistant to carry on the safety work under his direction is not now known.

(3) Safety teaching in the schools: As has already been indicated safety is ordinarily taught by teachers already employed when it makes its first appearance in a school system. This practice is ordinarily continued indefinitely in the elementary schools. In the secondary schools, however, there is some evidence that provision is being made for some teachers of safety. Shortridge High School in Indianapolis, for example, could scarcely add 10 classes in safety education—the number to be offered during the second semester of the current school year—without releasing an instructor from other work. When a school undertakes driver education, including actual road lessons in the operation of an automobile, it faces the problem of securing an instructor trained in this field. Some schools have made it possible for teachers to secure such training. Not all of these institutions have had the equipment necessary for that trained teacher to develop a complete program but with greater and greater frequency this is being done.

(4) Teacher training: The number of normal schools and universities offering credit courses during the summer session of 1938 exceeded that of any previous summer period. In one or two cases, these courses were taught by instructors provided by private agencies but the majority of them were

financed by the institutions themselves. This is a significant development. If it continues and is complemented by a corresponding growth of credit courses offered during the winter terms of teacher training institutions, then a new teaching field will have opened up. If the winter term expansion does not take place, then the opportunities will continue to be limited for it appears that for some time to come regular faculty members, and visiting instructors, will fill the summer positions.

(5) School plant inspectors: For several years Pittsburgh has employed a full-time inspector of school buildings, shop equipment and practices and so forth. There are no available data on the number of employes of this kind in other cities. It would seem likely that it would always be limited to the larger centers.

(6) Educational work with non-school organizations: Perhaps one of the most fertile fields for the individual desiring to devote his life to accident prevention lies in the area occupied by the non-school organizations that maintain divisions to work with the schools and colleges on school safety programs. The National Safety Council, American Automobile Association and National Conservation Bureau maintain small, active staffs of specialists who cooperate with the schools throughout the country in the training of teachers, development of curricula, organization of co-curricular activity programs and carry on many other types of work. None of these organizations operates on a fee basis. Consequently the size of their staffs are, and probably will continue to be, limited to the resources of the organizations available for educational work, not to the needs of the field.

When discussing educational opportunities in a special field, it is always considered helpful to say something about the financial return that may be expected, the qualifications for the positions available and future trends in the field. Only generalizations can be made on these subjects here. The teachers and supervisors of safety draw salaries comparable to teachers and supervisors of other subjects in the places where they work. The general established requirements of professional training and experience are usually observed plus some special knowledge of safety in a few places. While a lot of people very active in this field have "picked up" their safety knowledge as they have gone along endeavoring to meet the needs of the situations in which they found themselves, the need for special training is slowly gaining recognition. It is difficult to prophesy future developments in such a new field—particularly in the pages of a publication so widely recognized for its high standards!

Research Problems

1. Better summarization and unification of the principles involved. We need less details of how certain situations have been met and how hazards have been eliminated and more basic facts which can be applied to situations in general. This is true as regards both text and lecture material for classroom instruction and also as regards topics discussed in safety meetings.

2. More technical content in our instruction as a basis for full understanding. The highest success can come only when the student fully understands.

3. Scientific criteria for the selection of instructional materials and equipment; selection suitable for public school use.

4. Factors influencing methods of instruction and the advantages and disadvantages of the ones now commonly advocated.

5. Assignment of responsibility for the safety education for all age levels.

6. Scientific evaluation of present courses of study and the development of one representing recent trends.

7. Teacher qualifications for assignment of safety responsibility and minimum standards for teacher training institutions to meet.

8. Grade placement of the different phases of safety.

9. The feasibility of driver training in the high school.

10. Criteria for the selection of safety activities.

11. Methods of evaluation.

12. Tests and measurements for adaptation of instruction.

13. Methods of in-service teacher training.

14. Evaluation of state adopted textbooks.

15. Time allotment for the various phases of safety at all grade levels.

16. Evaluation of present visual aids.

17. Standards for student safety organizations.

18. Standard accident reporting and inspection blanks for public schools.

19. Effective methods of publicizing safety education.

20. Broader and more accurate factual knowledge about the causal elements in safety. This is needed to permit more direct and specific remedial action. Too much of the information at present is pure statistics on number, kind, place and time of accidents.

Teacher Training in Safety Education

By J. ANDREW HOLLEY

A SOUND, complete and well planned program of teacher training in safety education is vital to progress in the field of safety instruction. Such a program should include types of training for teachers in service as well as for those who are preparing to teach. It should also provide suitable training for superintendents and principals who will assume leadership responsibilities for the entire program of education, of which safety instruction is a significant part. Supervisors and directors of safety education for state and local school systems and college teachers of safety must be trained.

Excellent beginnings have been made in providing teacher training for the different types of positions and services suggested above. Even so, a survey made recently by the Research Division of the National Education Association reveals that for the country at large the teacher training needs have not been satisfied. According to this study, one of the major problems consists in providing more in-service training programs for classroom teachers and principals.[1] The lack of adequate in-service training for teachers and principals in safety education, according to their own reports, suggests a weakness in the amount and character of pre-service training. Furthermore, classroom teachers and principals, who bear the chief responsibility of programs of instruction in safety, do not have the advantages of assistance by trained directors and supervisors of safety education.[2] Again, the fact that in schools where safety is taught it is "referred to incidentally" in 27 per cent of the cases, indicates that for many teachers and principals training in safety education has been either incomplete or ineffective or both.[3]

The need for adequate programs of teacher training in safety is affected by assumptions relative to the specific responsibilities which teachers, administrators and supervisors are expected to assume. The program which is outlined in broad terms in this article is based on the following assumptions:

1. That each teacher and administrator has certain responsibilities for promoting directly or indirectly the objectives of safety education.

2. That special teachers, or teachers of special subjects, depending upon the local organization for instructional purposes, will assume definite instructional and leadership responsibilities for the development, administration and teaching of safety materials and activities. For example, on the secondary school level special teachers with very definite training will be needed to teach courses in driver education and training, particularly those phases having to do with road instruction.

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Extent of Teacher Training in Safety Education

A recent study by F. R. Noffsinger reveals that no teacher training in safety was required in 33 states, while in 9 other states no required teacher training was reported. In only 6 states was teacher training required or secured on a state-wide basis.[4]

While legal requirements do not guarantee satisfactory programs of teacher training in safety, it is doubtful that adequate training for every teacher can be secured without the force of law or regulation.

Safety education has been made a definite part of the curriculum of elementary, junior high and senior high schools of Oklahoma by appropriate resolution of the State Board of Education. Safety education may thus legally be considered an inte-

[1] *Safety Education Through Schools,* Research Division of the National Education Association, Vol. XVI, No. 5; November, 1938, p. 265.
[2] *Ibid.,* p. 248.
[3] *Ibid.,* pp. 246, 248.
[4] Noffsinger, F. R., *State Rules and Regulations Governing Safety Education in the United States,* American Automobile Association, Washington, D. C., 1938.

gral part of the public school program in Oklahoma from the primary department through the senior high school.

The State Board of Education in Oklahoma has recognized the necessity of training teachers to instruct pupils on all grade levels in safety. The majority of the teacher training institutions of the state have committees at work analyzing the present offerings to determine the extent of safety instruction already provided in the required courses for certification. These committees are charged with the responsibility of recommending such changes as will assure a more adequate pre-service training of prospective teachers in the content and methods of teaching safety in the elementary and high school grades.

Under revised regulations for certifying teachers all individuals who expect to obtain teaching certificates hereafter will be required to complete a minimum of 2 semester hours in health and safety education. In addition, special provisions will be made in a few of the teacher training institutions for offering courses in driver education and training for high school teachers. Such a course has been offered by the University of Oklahoma and a similar course is planned at Oklahoma A. and M. College.

To promote in-service training of teachers in safety a series of safety education conferences were conducted in 10 different centers throughout the state during March, 1938. Miss Marion Telford, Director, Division of Education of the National Safety Council, and Herbert J. Stack, Director, Center for Safety Education, New York University, conducted this series of conferences extending over a period of one week. These safety conferences were attended by more than 2,000 teachers, principals, superintendents and patrons. Through them many teachers and administrators were advised in the organization and administration of local safety programs of all types.

Safety institutes and short courses in various phases of safety education furnish desirable opportunities for in-service training of teachers. A short intensive course in driver education and training was conducted at the University of Oklahoma for high school teachers under the direction of F. R. Noffsinger and C. A. Wickham, Educational Consultants of the American Automobile Association. This in-service training program for 26 high school teachers was jointly sponsored by the University of Oklahoma, the State Department of Education, the Oklahoma Motor Club, and the American Automobile Association. The State Department of Public Safety cooperated by giving the high school teachers who attended the course the regular state examination in the operation of the automobile. The Oklahoma A. and M. College plans to assist in sponsoring such a course in driver education and training during the spring of 1939.

Besides these types of training for teachers in service, the University of Oklahoma held a two-day conference on school safety during the early fall of 1938. The conference leader was Kenneth Beadle, present Director of Education in the National Conservation Bureau.

Regular college credit courses in safety education have been offered at Oklahoma University, the Oklahoma A. and M. College and at several of the teachers colleges. School shop safety and home safety are stressed particularly in the teacher training programs at the A. and M. College and the University of Oklahoma. As a part of the program of teacher training and supervision in trades and industrial education, an excellent manual on shop safety has been produced and placed in the hands of each industrial arts teacher in the state.

Elsewhere in this issue of THE PHI DELTA KAPPAN, Herbert J. Stack discusses the teacher training activities of the New Center for Safety Education, New York University, the Institutes of Public Safety at Purdue University and at Pennsylvania State College, and the Institute for the Training of Traffic Safety at the University of Michigan. F. R. Noffsinger stated in a recently prepared radio address given over Station WNAD at the University of Oklahoma that during 1937 the American Automobile Association had assisted 12 colleges and universities in conducting Driver Education and Training Courses for teachers. In the summer of 1938, this number was increased to 40 institutions. According to Dr. Noffsinger, Louisiana was the first state to introduce teacher training and Driver Education and Training on a statewide basis.

With all of the efforts now being made by teacher training institutions to train teachers in the different phases of safety education evidence is lacking that the in-service and pre-service programs

are complete and adequate, except in a few institutions and sections of the country.

The Nature of the Curriculum for Teacher Training Courses in Safety

The teacher training program must be based upon a definite and sound philosophy of education as it relates to safety. Unless the teacher accepts the viewpoint that the practice of safety in every situation is simply to exercise the privileges and responsibilities of desirable citizenship, safety education is apt to become isolated and "bookish." In the realm of safety the smallest child can practice immediately what he learns at school, both at school and in the home and community. He does not need to take the teaching on good faith. He is not dealing merely in deferred values. As he develops he should become progressively more able to adjust his daily activities safely to the hazards of his physical environment. The highest form of "safetyness" consists of combining his efforts with those of his fellows in making the environment safer for all; young and old alike.

One of the purposes of teacher training in safety is to make the individual teacher or prospective teacher not only safety conscious and intelligent, but inclined by intention and habit to safe and courteous behavior in all situations involving accident hazards. The assumption is ventured that knowledge, good intentions and safety practices are the first requisites of each teacher of safety. A person who has had a Red Cross First Aid course is more inclined to safe conduct in every situation where he or she is conscious of hazard.

Pre-service and in-service teacher training programs in safety education must be developed and carried on simultaneously. These programs are mentioned separately merely for emphasis. In certain types of teacher training activities the two may profitably be combined.

The chief types of in-service training activities consist of (1) conferences, (2) safety institutes and short courses, (3) regular credit undergraduate and graduate courses in colleges and universities, (4) local and regional study programs, and (5) local and state-wide curriculum programs. Examples of safety education conferences, institutes and short courses in Oklahoma have already been mentioned. Such training activities are much more effective when the fields of discussions are limited, when opportunities are given for participation by those attending, and when travel distances are not too great.

The most promising types of pre-service teacher training activities in safety education consist of (1) special undergraduate and graduate credit courses in colleges and universities, (2) practice teaching, including the development of teaching units in the different aspects of safety, (3) special units and projects in safety education in other courses and departments, (4) conferences, and (5) institutes and short courses. The last two types have been restricted application for individuals without teaching experience.

Every prospective elementary and secondary school teacher should be required to complete two or three semester hours in safety education which should include at least brief treatments of (1) home safety, (2) street and highway safety, (3) safety in athletics and recreation, (4) industrial safety, and (5) first aid. First aid may be taught either as a special course or as a part of a required course in health education, but it is highly desirable that first aid information and skills be taught to every teacher.

In addition, the teacher training programs for each of the special fields should emphasize safety. For example, in home economics, home safety may be effectively taught under such units and problems as (1) contributing to the family income by preventing accidents, (2) discussing the characteristics of good play equipment in the course in child care, (3) checking hazards in the home and community, (4) determining housing needs in terms of safety, (5) safeguarding electricity in the home. Likewise, courses in industrial arts should provide definite units in home, shop and industrial safety.

It is possible without over-emphasis to stress safety in such fields as physics, chemistry, social studies, etc. Tully Watson, professor of physics at Northeastern State Teachers College at Tahlequah, Oklahoma, has developed an excellent description of opportunities which he utilizes in his college physics classes for teaching safety to prospective science teachers.

Regular college safety courses and units should stress the following points:

1. Place the chief emphasis upon the facts, principles, problems, attitudes, understandings and

habits most suitable for safety instruction on the different grade levels.

2. Indicate effective and suitable teaching methods, approaches, procedures, types of pupil activities and materials of instruction on the different grade levels and divisions.

3. Reveal information and sources of information concerning the functions and activities of governmental and non-governmental agencies in discovering and seeking to solve problems of safety. It is necessary for the teachers to be informed on these points so as to be able to cooperate effectively with the various safety agencies.

4. Teach how and where to obtain reliable facts concerning accidents and accident hazards in the local community. In this connection, the teacher should learn the place, value and some of the techniques for conducting surveys of accident hazards.

5. Provide experiences in constructing units of instruction in safety in the grades and subjects in which the teacher is interested.

Teaching Methods in Safety

The methods employed in the teacher training courses in safety on the college level should be varied and, with proper adaptation, should be similar to those the teacher is expected to use in her future classroom work. The lecture method has practically nullified the effectiveness of courses in hygiene and health, in so far as making desirable differences in the teaching of kindred courses and units in the common schools are concerned. Such a method has tended to place emphasis upon instruction about health, instead of upon gaining a functional understanding of the subject.

Laboratory methods in the broad sense should be employed extensively in safety instruction. Such methods provide opportunities for gaining experiences which the lecture method alone can never supply. It is important that instruction in safety be more than a mere recital of facts and principles. Prospective teachers should be exposed to actual demonstrations which in a modified way might be applicable to instruction on lower levels to less mature students.

The discussion method and socialized procedures should be used freely. Through these methods and procedures desirable attitudes, ideals and understandings can be developed which will serve to influence present and future behavior materially. Through discussion groups judgments and opinions are formed which furnish the basis for influencing conduct by means of group approval and disapproval.

The methods and procedures used in teacher training courses in safety should include the introduction of visual aids, survey methods and techniques, and methods of evaluating results and outcomes of instruction.

Differentiation in assigned problems and readings will permit each individual to obtain an overview of the problems and activities of safety instruction on the various grade levels for the different age groups.

Throughout the teacher training program the primary objectives should be, first to develop a sense of individual responsibility for safe behavior and, secondly to develop effective abilities and techniques in teaching safety.

Did You Know That:

1. The White House Proclamation on Child Health and Protection included in one item of its Children's Charter—"For every child education for safety and protection against accidents to which modern conditions subject him—those to which he is directly exposed and those which, through loss or maiming of his parents, affect him indirectly"?

2. Safety education has been deemed so important by educators that it was recently selected as the theme of the 1940 Year Book of the American Association of School Administrators?

3. Safety education is that phase of education which has as its specific objective the prevention of accidents. It seeks to teach the child how to live safely in a world of many hazards. Its chief justification lies in the fact that the health and safety of the school child is of fundamental importance. All education becomes meaningless unless the child's life is protected?

4. According to studies that have been conducted, unless there is an improvement in the accident situation, one out of every three children will be killed or seriously injured in a traffic accident in a lifetime?

5. Safety education in the schools has achieved remarkable results. Since 1922, the year a national program of safety education was started in the schools, the all-accident rate for school children has declined 25 per cent?

6. Safety education is taught best through enjoyable activities based upon the interests and needs of the child. The child learns to do by doing.

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Safety Education in the Light of Mental Hygiene

By GILBERT J. RICH

EDUCATION in matters of safety cannot be separated from the educative process as a whole, and, just as new concepts are enlightening our ideas as to the goals and methods underlying the school curriculum, in the same way new ideas are already changing certain of our notions as to the real nature of safety education. In this progress, one of the contributing factors has been a better understanding of the fact that a human being is controlled by emotional forces, as well as by knowledge and habits.

If we are to base any program of education upon a scientific foundation, we must, first of all, ask ourselves what type of behavior we are trying to produce in our pupils. The answer, in this case, would seem to be very simple. We wish to train children so that they will avoid creating dangerous situations for themselves and others, and thus avoid precipitating accidents. Can we, moreover, carry this definition further and describe the type of individual who meets this requirement? The answer is not wholly clear, but definite facts are beginning to emerge out of our earlier ignorance. With the rapid growth of automotive transportation, and of automobile accidents, the interest of experimental laboratories and of psychological and psychiatric clinics has been focussed upon studies of the persons involved in these accidents. It is true, of course, that prevention of automobile accidents is far from being the whole of safety education. It is the field, however, that has received the greatest amount of study at this time and from which important conclusions can be drawn. Early workers in this field were naturally guided by the results of previous studies of street-car motormen. As a consequence, they concerned themselves with the intellectual and motor abilities of their subjects. Various objective tests of sensory and motor functions in the form either of miniature situations or of specialized tests of individual abilities were developed and used extensively. At first, the results seemed to be encouraging. Some differences between good and bad drivers were delineated. But further study proved that the first hint of success was only a mirage. The various tests and batteries of tests did not stand up under continued scrutiny. Persons who had all the abilities needed for safe driving had accidents, and vice versa. Surely, something was missing; there were some additional factors that had not yet entered into the account.

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Nor was it necessary to look far for the missing ingredients in safe behavior. These were soon found in the emotional and affective life of the individual. His underlying drives are factors in his handling of an automobile, just as much as they are in his handling of his family. The emotionally stable or emotionally labile person will act in his characteristic way at the wheel as well as in the office, social group, classroom or home. The total pattern of behavior which we call personality manifests itself in every phase of behavior, and whether or not a man or woman acts safely is one expression of it. Reports from laboratories in which the inadequate personality tests have been used are already at hand and have yielded promising results in spite of their many failings. Moreover, clinics dealing with traffic problems are coming to a similar conclusion. They are finding that studies of the personalities and emotional drives of persons who have accidents give far more knowledge of the causative factors than do the more objective tests of intellectual abilities and motor skills.

Perhaps our knowledge of these matters is as yet so nebulous that we are hardly justified in attempting to apply it in the field of education. If we had an even partially satisfactory philosophy of safety

education, one would hesitate to recommend a change upon insufficient evidence. But we do not have this as yet. Training in matters of safety is only in its beginning. There is always danger of premature crystallization, with the development of teaching techniques dictated by tradition rather than on the basis of latest knowledge. Enough is known already to point the direction for our efforts. It is true that the facts have come to us from a study of accidents in only one field, but they are so completely in keeping with our present-day understanding of human behavior that one can hardly doubt their more general applicability. A knowledge of the importance of emotional drives in the direction of human behavior is an outstanding contribution of psychology and psychopathology, and one which is rapidly playing havoc with the more ancient intellectualistic formulations. The notion that people do what is right if they know right from wrong is no longer tenable. Even the principle that correct habits determine right behavior is seen to be not as universally applicable as it was once believed to be, especially when it is realized that habits are specific rather than general. The educator who keeps abreast of the times must necessarily take cognizance of the emotional nature of his pupils, and, above all, of his responsibility in developing this side of their personalities. He must do this in safety education, as in every other part of the educative process. It is with these thoughts in mind that we are generalizing to the extent of applying to safety in general the information already gained with respect to safety in the automotive field.

The changes which we are considering for the field of safety education are, in reality, the same changes in point of view which have characterized the recent development of educational theory. It was not so many years ago that the work of the schools was understood to be primarily that of imparting facts. A great deal of information has been acquired by the human race during the many centuries through which civilization has been developing. This is the intellectual heritage of every child, and it thus becomes the task of education to pass it on, together with an adequate understanding of the current social customs. The main duty of the teacher was, under this concept, to see that the pupils acquired the necessary knowledge, and the main problem in formulating a curriculum was the decision as to just which facts were important and needed to be learned at a given age.

Several decades ago, however, psychological knowledge became sufficiently definite to make contributions to the field of education. Early experimental work was concerned mainly with matters of learning and habit formation. The result was to turn the interest of educators to the acquisition of skills as an important goal, in addition to the acquisition of information. A great deal was heard about teaching the "tool subjects." It was realized that children must know "how" as well as just know. Studies of various factors in acquiring skill were made, a great body of fact accumulated, and methods of teaching modified accordingly. It is not, of course, strange that educational interest should have centered in a field where there was definite information that could be of help in developing better techniques. Such is the more or less natural course of development.

Now, however, facts of another sort are becoming available and it is beginning to be realized that some of the prime objectives of education had been lost sight of. It is seen that the task of the school goes beyond providing the child with knowledge and with skills. Clinical experience in the field of mental hygiene confirms numerous studies in the social phases of psychology in showing that a child who has acquired all the knowledge and intellectual skill appropriate to his age may still be most poorly prepared for life as it exists in our modern civilization. Human beings are equipped with a set of emotional drives and responses which evolved under conditions totally different from those in which they now live. They are unsuitable to many of the needs of our intricate social life, and must be modified and suppressed constantly. When this process proceeds smoothly and successfully, the individual is well adjusted emotionally. But, far too often, conflict arises between the drives of the individual and the demands of the environment, with the resulting compensations, aggressions, etc., which mark the poorly adjusted personality. Such an individual can never be said to be well prepared for life, no matter how thorough his training may be. Educators are coming to sense this. They are coming to see that the real task of the school is the production of well-adjusted adults, even though they may know fewer facts and have acquired less skill in such operations as

computation, reading, or translating Latin. The schools are second only to the home in producing emotional attitudes in the growing generation, that is, in forming well adjusted or poorly adjusted personalities with which to meet the complex problems of life. It is most unfortunate that this fact is clearly recognized only in countries under dictatorships, where the schools are utilized for sinister and selfish purposes, rather than existing for the benefit of the children.

Is there a parallelism between this development and that which is taking place or must take place in the field of education in safety? There most assuredly is. We have already seen that such knowledge as we have with regard to causative factors in accidents has shown the importance of emotional factors. Safe behavior is characteristic of the well-adjusted personality. Such being the case, the goal of safety education is quite compatible with the more general goal of education, namely, the production of persons emotionally well-equipped for life. When, however, we ask whether the actual teaching of safety is tending in this direction, the answer is not too favorable. For an evolutionary process probably has to be passed through, and this has not been done as yet.

The teaching of accident prevention is far too often only in the stage of imparting information. Children are being taught rules of safe behavior. They learn intellectually what they should do. Will they do it? That is quite another question. We know that they will not unless they have the skills to do so and, more important, adequate motivation to follow instructions and utilize their abilities. Another aspect of the intellectual phase of safety education is the use of slogans, verbalisms and aphorisms, instruments in whose efficacy our population has an almost child-like trust. A great deal of money and effort is wasted in safety campaigns, both in and out of school, which do not pass beyond the use of slogans, and which in the end accomplish little or nothing. Human behavior is not readily modified in any so simple fashion. Similarly, studies and surveys of the incidence of accidents and their causes, now frequently appearing in high schools, are essentially methods of giving factual information. A very few of the pupils who participate may be emotionally stirred and gain new motivating influences, but for the majority the survey is merely additional information even though they may help in the process of accumulating it.

The next stage in development is, of course, habit formation, the acquisition of skill in safe behavior. Children are placed in situations where they must follow out in their daily lives some of the rules and regulations that they have learned. We agree that they learn more by doing than by listening or reading. They do acquire habits of safe behavior in certain situations. But habits are specific, not general. What is going to happen when a new situation arises and the specific habit is no longer of value? The child is then without any guide toward safe behavior. There are no generalized habits, and it is manifestly impossible to develop a large enough variety of types of safe behavior to meet all situations. The goal of safety education, an individual who will avoid behavior which might lead to accident, is still far from being realized. The educative process must go deeper.

But we recognize that human behavior is dominated by conscious and unconscious emotional attitudes. If a person is to behave safely, he must have some drive toward safety. It is even more important that he lack those drives which lead toward dangerous activity. For there is always the impulse toward self-preservation to be enlisted on the positive side. It can be strengthened by making the life to be preserved worth-while, whether it be one's own life or that of others. On the negative side, there is the tendency toward self-destruction which has been brought to light by psychoanalytic studies. It is only in the most maladjusted persons that it shows itself in the patent form of suicidal tendencies. More frequently its manifestation is concealed. A seeking after danger or a choice of a dangerous rather than a safe situation is a more common, though unconscious, manifestation. Or the destructive tendency may be directed away from the self and upon others. Here it may work together with aggressions due to unresolved hatreds, desires to escape from the tedium of life or from unpleasant situations, rivalries, jealousies, and the like. The individual becomes reckless with regard to others. He wants to carry out his desires irrespective of their effect upon those about him, and regardless of their safety. If the emotional conflict is a little deeper, the behavior toward others becomes destructive, punishing or harming a disliked person at the expense of safety, or even de-

liberately, though unconsciously, bringing him into danger.

Perhaps these points may be briefly illustrated by an example, if reference to the special field of automobile driving again be made. Much rivalry exists between drivers on the road, and it is common to feel that the one who passes us, drives on the part of the road we want, etc., is a "road hog." How do we react in turn? The person who feels inferior is infuriated. He must "get even." To do so, he crowds out or again passes the driver who angered him, regardless of the danger involved. He probably knows the danger well enough, but this knowledge is impotent as a factor in directing behavior compared to the strength of the emotional drive. Such a person can readily be recognized as one who is maladjusted. Had he solved the problems of his life in an adequate manner, he would not have felt the need for retaliation, would not have been angered by the incident. His behavior on the road was determined by some happenings in his childhood which made him feel his inferiority and need of compensation. It may have been an overstrict father, a mother who belittled him, or a brother who outshone him. But it may also have been a teacher who made him feel different from his companions and created in him a great need for fighting against all comers. Had he been given reassurance and help instead of criticism and fault-finding, his emotional reactions today would be different and he would be a safe driver.

Thus, it would appear that the most important factor in education for safety, as in any other phase of education, is the production of well-adjusted personalities, adequate to the world in which we live, personalities in which the drive of destructive, aggressive tendencies is not too strong, personalities in which the inevitable compensatory mechanisms of life are constructive rather than destructive. There is no royal road toward this goal. No formal procedures leading to it have been delineated. It cannot be taught as a separate subject. Everything that the teacher says or does to the child has its effect upon emotional development. The growth of personality is influenced in every classroom, in every subject, in every contact with administrative officers. Most of all, it is influenced by the personality of the teacher, for the first requisite to mental hygiene in the school is good mental hygiene of the teachers.

This, however, is not the place to discuss mental hygiene in relation to school life. Our desire is rather to show its importance in the special field of safety education. Such a point of view, if it means anything at all, shows that the teaching of safety as such is only a part of the task. There is, in addition, the larger and far more challenging task of developing wholesome personalities. This task is so large that it stands today as one of the foremost problems of education and one to which all can make contributions, no matter what their field of specialization may be.

Did You Know That:

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7. Each year in the United States a greater number of school children are killed by accidents than die from any disease?

8. The aggregate national absence from school because of accidents in one year to about 2,400,000 days?

9. Accidents killed a total of 106,000 persons in the United States in 1937. There were 9,900,000 disabling injuries with one in every four families affected. The direct costs of these accidents amounted to $3,600,000,000, or $115.00 for every family in the land?

10. The various types of accidental deaths show the need for a broad program of safety education. Although highway and traffic safety is very important in the light of the 39,500 motor vehicle deaths in 1937, such a program alone cannot possibly meet the needs as they exist today. The 32,500 home deaths, the many accidents in school buildings and on school grounds, occupational and other fatalities disclose the need for a broad, inclusive program of safety education touching every phase of the child's life?

11. Motor vehicle registrations reached the thirty million mark in 1937. Strange as it may seem inventions designed for the benefit of man often bring with them hazards. The crowding of people into large cities is responsible for many accidents. As the world changes, the schools must also change. They must meet the needs of boys and girls today. The number of accidents to school children proves the need for a type of education that will safeguard the child against hazards?

12. Safety education is taught most frequently as a portion of the regular school subjects. Less frequently it is presented as a separate subject. Much valuable teaching is done through such school organizations as the junior safety councils, safety patrols and other school groups?

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The American Red Cross and Safety Education

By JOHN B. DUNNE

WHEN we start thinking in terms of what a program in accident prevention or safety training will mean to the average school curriculum, we are often liable to lose sight of the needs of the students. Let us put it a little differently. In the past few months there has been a lot of pressure on educators to put into the schools a definite Accident Prevention course. Some states and cities have proceeded along conservative lines in order that their schools might have a complete course designed to meet the needs of pupils in the class rooms. Others have rushed headlong into safety training and have authorized teachers to give a painless course which they might trump up at their own discretion, using any tracts or pamphlets which they might find or secure through the benevolence of some organization interested in the promotion of safety. What the student needs in the way of safety training should be our major concern. Thank heavens, the last Safety Congress, held in Chicago by the National Safety Council, spelled the beginning of the end of such hit-and-miss Accident Prevention programs. In the Child Education section of the Congress, one was struck with the earnestness of those attending, in looking for a workable program that would meet the needs of the most schools and the most students. Such a spirit of cooperation as was evidenced there must surely give portent of more and more workable, usable, worthwhile programs in the schools throughout the country.

It should be remembered that no one agency promoting safety training has the panacea for the ills of a school program which lacks the accident prevention phase. There is a need for cooperation of all agencies and consolidation of all programs into an ideal course that can be used by the greatest number of schools. It is with this thought firmly in mind that the writer accepts the responsibility of explaining the part that the Red Cross Services can play when given the proper emphasis in the complete school program of training in safety. Those services are: (1) First Aid; (2) Life Saving and Water Safety; (3) Home and Farm Accident Prevention.

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Though it may be said that all of these services are interdependent, they really travel different roads and, therefore, we shall handle them as separate entities in this discussion. It can readily be seen that it would be impossible for every school to adopt all three services, because of lack of swimming facilities, but there is definitely a place for at least two as a part of a complete program that is designed to run throughout the school year.

First Aid

Frankly speaking, when the Red Cross embarked upon its program of teaching first aid, there was no intention of making this a fundamental course in accident prevention. At its inception more than thirty years ago, the First Aid Service was visualized as an agency for teaching the proper methods of caring for the injured until the doctor could be secured. Let us look at the definition of First Aid as given in the American Red Cross First Aid Text Book. It runs as follows:

"First Aid is the immediate or temporary aid that is given in case of accident or serious illness before the service of a physician can be secured."

In analyzing this definition, one should bear in mind the emphasis that is placed upon the words immediate or temporary. This is done to preclude digression on the part of a first-aider into anything that is in the realm of medical aid. Those members of the medical profession who so generously contributed to the writing of the text and to its later revisions understood the pitfalls of any such meddling on the part of lay persons and took every precaution to make first aid an emergency measure.

The Red Cross is ever alert to preserve the trust placed in it by the medical profession.

There are four distinct purposes of first aid training as set forth in the textbook. These are: (1) To prevent accidents. (2) To enable a person to determine the nature and extent of an injury. (3) To teach the first-aider to do the proper thing at the proper time. (4) To teach how to transport an injured person.

It may seem strange that the first purpose is stated as prevention of accidents. It is this element that has made first aid such a vital part of many successful safety programs in industry. We said a little earlier that there was no definite intention to teach accident prevention when first aid training became part of the Red Cross program. It was soon learned, however, from employers whose employes were given a course in first aid, that they became safer workmen. As the reports continued to come in to this effect, an attempt was made to analyze why first aid training should have such a bearing upon a person's safe conduct. It was decided that those who took the course began to think in terms of what the injury would mean to them and their families. Today it is a well established fact that persons in industry who are taught first aid are fifty per cent less liable to have an accident than those who do not receive the training. A voluntary survey by the United States overnment of the men employed on P.W.A., W.P.A. and C.C.C. jobs indicates that first-aid trainees are 60 per cent less liable to be involved in an accident than those who fail to avail themselves of the training offered by the various government agencies.

Much emphasis has been given the fact that up to the present time the most admirable record in cutting down the accident rate, has been made by industry. This is due in a large measure to the intensive safety program they have pursued. This must have had much to do with the motivation behind the effort to educate to safety through the schools. While the safety problems confronting children are different from those of industrial employes, there are dangers in all walks of life which they must face. Therefore, education for safety should start where all education starts, in the home and in the school. In other words, what's sauce for the goose and gander is sauce for the gosling. The writer heartily believes that a great deal can be done by starting each child out with a firm footing in how to preserve his own life and protect the lives of others.

Industry recognizes the value of first aid training as basic accident prevention. It should, therefore, be a part of the program in the schools. But how can it best be given to do the greatest amount of good in the schools? There is a definite course outline for the Junior Course in First Aid that is available to instructors. This course can be covered in twenty hours and can be taught one lesson a week or oftener. For students in their senior year at high school, it might be thought advisable to teach the Senior Course. If these courses are taught by a teacher who has taken a course under one of the National Red Cross Staff Physicians or a First Aid Field Representative, the students who successfully complete the course are entitled to receive a First Aid Certificate from the Red Cross. Any other arrangement for teaching first aid by a teacher not trained is not advisable. Teaching first aid is a specialized subject and should be done only by duly appointed lay instructors or by physicians who have been authorized by the Red Cross. The principal or superintendent should ascertain from the teacher whether or not he or she holds an up-to-date certificate as a First Aid Instructor before assigning the teacher to teach first aid. Teachers of first aid must be specifically trained for their tasks, since the First Aid Course is only twenty-five per cent theory, which may be imparted orally, and seventy-five per cent actual performance of specialized skills, such as splinting, bandaging, artificial respiration. No one can teach first aid satisfactorily from a textbook, unless he is already accomplished in the practice of first aid.

The question here arises, "How can teachers become lay instructors in first aid?" The State of Georgia thought that first aid instruction in the schools was so important that in one sweeping move, they designated hundreds of teachers to atten regional or sectional lay-instructor classes held over the state in a three-month period in 1937 by the American Red Cross. New teachers are being subsequently trained in later classes conducted by the Red Cross Staff Physicians. Louisiana also had a state-wide program for teaching instructors in first aid. In other states, the county superintendents arrange for training classes through local chapters.

Many teacher training colleges are including the

First Aid Lay Instructors' Course as part of their curricula. This may be the ultimate answer to providing an adequate number of trained persons. Schoolmen can do much to insist on this as prerequisite of any candidate for employment who is to teach Accident Prevention. If you have the place now for this course in your school, and have no qualified instructors, you may contact your local Red Cross Chapter and make your needs known. If you cannot reach your local chapter, you may write directly to Harold F. Enlows, Director of First Aid and Life Saving, American National Red Cross, Washington, D. C. Every effort will be made to aid the teachers to enroll in a Lay Instructors' Course at an early date.

Life Saving and Water Safety

Life saving was at first considered first aid to the victims of water accidents, but like the entire field of aquatic sports, it has undergone a very thorough evolution. With the passing of the bather the past few years have brought a new meaning to swimming, canoeing, boating and sailing. The awakening interest in water activties has brought many thousand new pools, hundreds of new beaches and, wherever possible, the abandonment of "the old swimmin' hole." This trend has brought an unbelievable increase in the number of persons using the swimming facilities. A conservative estimate states that there has been a 500 per cent increase in persons using the water for recreation in the last two decades. One would expect a tremendous increase in the drowning rate, but, fortunately, the opposite is true. The number of persons losing their lives in water accidents has been steadily decreasing and may be further decreased if a like amount of success attends the efforts of the American Red Cross Life Saving Service in the future. Pardonable pride is taken by this organization in the fact that in the face of a rising tide of accidental deaths in most fields, the drowning rate continues to wane.

The life saving program has steadily been increasing its influence and shortly there will be 1,000,000 Life Savers who have been trained by the Red Cross. In addition to this number, there are hundreds of thousands each year who learn to swim through Red Cross Chapters' Swimming and Life Saving programs.

What does all of this have to do with the safety training course in the schools? For those schools having swimming facilities, no finer adjunct to the well rounded accident prevention course could be had than training to make each student safe in the water and capable of rendering aid to another if a water accident should occur. This course can be included as a part of the regular physical education program and will guarantee constant development of skills and abilities on the part of the student in the water.

A textbook in *Life Saving and Water Safety* and one on *Swimming and Diving* are now available through the Red Cross, and very thoroughly cover the subject of safety in the water. The teacher's outline for the instructor in life saving and water safety is written along lines that coincide with the modern and progressive conception of education. The lessons are designed to provide lecture material as well as the developing of water skills in the students.

The course for instructors in life saving and water safety is available at many colleges and universities now. If there is a need in your school for such an instructor, you should consult your local Red Cross chapter and every effort will be made to train and qualify those responsible for teaching swimming at your school. Each year the Red Cross conducts aquatic schools in the summer months at various points throughout the country. Training for those interested in teaching swimming and life saving is provided at the schools. Much can be done to aid the American Red Cross in its effort to spread the training of water safety by the schools with available swimming facilities. Badges are awarded to students who pass the tests.

Home and Farm Accident Prevention

This service is the youngest of the many services of the American Red Cross. Nevertheless, it has been accorded much praise by many members of the educational field. This program, designed to attack the tremendous problem of accidents in the home and on the farm, has been in operation for three years. Much credit is due to the National Safety Council for their aid in launching this service. Because of the fact that the Red Cross has more than 3600 chapters throughout the United States, it was the logical organization to put in effect this effort to reach into the homes and with the aid of the school children eradicate many of the hazards

that are found there without our knowledge of their presence.

The manner in which the program operates should be briefly discussed here. A week is designated in October each year as "Home Inspection Week." Well in advance of the week, teachers are sent discussion material covering accidents and hazards in the home. If the school is in a rural area, more emphasis is placed upon additional hazards found on the farm. The students are instructed in proper methods of looking for and elimination of hazards in their own homes. During the week set aside as National Home Inspection Week by the American Red Cross, the students are given check lists for their homes, or, if they live on a farm, they may be used on the reverse side for farm. The items on the list are items known to be the causes of many of the millions of home accidents each year. When the hazards are corrected or removed, there is a check placed beside that item on the list and the lists are returned to the schoolroom in many cases. A good follow-up on the campaign is to have the pupils prepare papers or give talks on the hazards they found and how they eliminated them. Such discussions would keep the subject alive for many weeks after the inspection had been completed. Thus the students' attention would be focused on the subject of keeping the home free from accidents, with unquestionably worthwhile effect.

Materials for this program are provided free of charge to the principal or superintendent for school distribution. Valuable text material for the teachers is included. The chapter in your locality can arrange to help you inaugurate this as part of your safety program. If you cannot reach your chapter, you may write direct to Mr. John Mehlpolder, Director, Home and Farm Accident Prevention Service, American National Red Cross, Washington, D. C.

Conclusion

From discussing the matter with persons interested in the field of Child Education in Safety and Accident Prevention, the writer has learned that most of us are thinking along about the same lines. The theme that runs through it all is, why should we educate young men and women to earn a living, if we do not teach them how to live? The surest way to live long is to live safely—so why not help the students of our schools to have a high regard for safety through safety training.

The American Red Cross, dedicated to the care of victims of disaster, is also dedicated to the prevention of disaster. The annual toll of life, limb and property due to accidents is our *greatest* national disaster. Thus is the Red Cross called upon to dedicate itself anew to join with other great forces in helping to make our country a safer and happier one for all to enjoy.

Did You Know That:

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13. Safety education is a way of life and not a subject to be learned. It is a way of life which recognizes not only the need for self-protection, but the fact that "I am my brother's keeper." It involves cooperative relationships with many out-of-school agencies, chief among which are the police and fire departments?

Safety education does not preach a gospel of fear or cowardice. It stresses skillful and intelligent participation in life's activities. It seeks to teach the child how to enjoy the thrilling experiences of life while at the same time he escapes the misery and sorrow that often characterizes ill-considered and unskillful performance?

14. This is the eighteenth year in which Safety Education has been a vital part of the curriculum in many public schools?

15. Persons over 55 years of age are six times as likely to be killed while pedestrians, as are children aged 10 to 14, according to an eight-year study of traffic fatalities in Washington, D. C., made by the AAA?

16. Two-thirds to three-quarters of our pedestrian deaths occur after dark?

17. Every high school in the city of Cleveland is offering driver training, including actual instruction on the road?

18. There are 275,000 school safety patrol members in 3,250 communities whose job it is to protect nearly 8,000,000 fellow classmates from traffic hazards as the latter go to and from school?

19. Practically every recorded pedestrian accident produces a bodily injury, while only one in four recorded motor vehicle accidents not involving pedestrians results in someone being hurt, according to a six-year AAA study of accident records in Washington, D. C.?

20. More than 5,000 high schools in all parts of the country are offering some form of driver training or instruction in the principles of traffic safety?

The National Conservation Bureau and Safety Education

By KENNETH N. BEADLE

A GOOD way to visualize the activities of the National Conservation Bureau, of the Association of Casualty and Surety Executives, is to think of it as an accident-fighting organization. This is not meant in the narrow sense of a fire brigade going out to stop a blaze, but in the larger sense of preventing death or injury to persons and damage to property from all forms of accidents in all parts of the nation.

For, while recognizing accidents as calamities happening in local situations, the Bureau considers them also as a national problem—a disease spread all over the country by our mechanized, super-speed civilization. Hence the Bureau's endeavors are to be classed with those of such agencies, public and private, which devote their efforts to stamping out disease. One thinks immediately of such splendid organized battles as are being waged against tuberculosis and cancer.

The Conservation Bureau combats accidents in similar ways and with similar weapons. In the belief that all accidents are symptomatic of a central disease, it fights accidents of all types, whether they occur in traffic, at work, at home or in the school. It fights them in four principal ways—by training educators, traffic engineers, police officers and others directly concerned with public security; by developing accident-prevention projects to be used by insurance agents, safety councils, and others; by conducting research, including development of safety codes and standards; and by helping cities to undertake traffic surveys and develop safety programs.

Obviously, the Bureau's chief field of action is the promotion of such safety activities by the constituted authorities as will result in substantial reduction in accidents. This implies that the Bureau's most important interest—and its primary *raison d'etre*—lies in accident prevention. The strongest arm it employs to bring this about is education—education in accident prevention.

The Bureau's safety educational program is a comprehensive one extending into colleges and high schools, adult groups and communities. It was greatly expanded last year, and will continue to be enlarged and intensified during 1939. Most recent of the major projects on this program was the grant of funds given to New York University for the purpose of establishing the Center for Safety Education. This work is described elsewhere in this issue.

The men and women teachers being trained at the Center will constitute the major corps in the anti-accident crusade. In addition to them, the Bureau is actively promoting the training of the vast new generation of youngsters now in high school in a specific phase of safety—that concerned with behavior in the automotive age, whether as drivers or pedestrians. For this purpose the textbook "Man and the Motor Car," has been developed, nearly 200,000 copies of which are in use in more than 4,000 high schools, with ten states having authorized special editions.

As is not generally known, the National Conservation Bureau, acting as the safety instrumentality of capital stock casualty insurance companies, was the pioneer in sponsoring the establishment of driver training programs in the secondary schools. Today the Bureau is pushing this plan with the utmost vigor, in the conviction that its effects upon the safety habits and the resultant safety record of the nation in years to come will be incalculably good.

At the present time a survey is being made of all schools which have purchased supplies of "Man and the Motor Car" since it was first introduced in 1936, to ascertain the extent of its use, and ways and means in which the Bureau may assist in further development of such school programs. A

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new plan is being worked out giving step by step the process to be followed in putting the textbook in use in schools, thus aiding school authorities in finding a place for traffic education in the curriculum and in integrating the teaching of safety with other subjects. For the Bureau believes that education in safety should permeate other forms of education, and that preparation for safe living is also preparation for wise living.

In addition to "Man and the Motor Car," a growing list of publications in the field of accident prevention testifies to the Bureau's interest in educating for safety. This interest began to find tangible expression more than ten years ago, with the first of a series of contributions resulting from studies financed in whole or in part by the Bureau's predecessor, the National Bureau of Casualty and Surety Underwriters. Ruth Streitz's "Safety Education in the Elementary Schools" provided a technique for developing subject matter in this relatively new field, while Max S. Henig's "Safety Education in the Vocational School" outlined the construction of the curriculum for accident prevention.

Herbert J. Stack's "A Guide-Book for Safety Education," including courses of study in safety education for elementary, secondary, and vocational schools, opened the way for detailed studies by persons holding research fellowships. "Positive vs. Negative Instruction," Dr. James Vaughn, laid the basis for a more effective teaching method; and "Safety and Health in Organized Camps," by J. Edward Sanders contributed much to bring about improvements in this greatly expanded field. In his "Safety in Physical Education in Secondary Schools," Frank S. Lloyd made a study of accidents in public and private schools and offered practical recommendations for control.

Besides these major contributions, the Conservation Bureau publishes tests on safety and safety education, in addition to booklets; conducts radio broadcasts; makes announcements and talks; and has available posters, as well as slides and other visual aids for teaching safety.

If safety is to be more than a beautiful but impractical goal, if it is to be carried into effective execution, we must have a body of specialists trained in engineering for safety and in enforcement for safety. In reality the two are but the practical applications of safety education. For that reason, one of the most significant of the Bureau's activities is to assist various universities and other groups in conducting training schools for traffic engineers and police personnel. At Rutgers, Northwestern, Pennsylvania State College, Yale, and Alabama and Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, members of the Bureau staff give lectures and help prepare courses or outline plans of study. More invitations than can be fulfilled have been received from other institutions of learning for similar assistance.

To make its work as useful as possible, the Bureau lends the services of its Traffic Division to communities for direct assistance in mapping out safety programs. For example, an experienced traffic engineer of the Bureau goes into a city afflicted with traffic ills, and, first of all, makes a thorough analysis and survey of the local accident situation. Following his findings—the preparation of which may take a few days or many weeks—he issues a set of recommendations based on techniques which have proved effective in combating similar difficulties in other cities. The practical follow-up of these suggestions is left to local authorities; the Bureau's function is primarily advisory.

We may think of such services as representing traffic engineering; but they are basically community education in street and highway accident prevention as well. Underlying every community traffic improvement program suggested by the Bureau is the principle that public education forms the foundation of all efforts to solve traffic accident problems and is essential to any permanent betterment.

A natural query is, "Why is the National Conservation Bureau so active in promoting safety and education for safety?" The best answer is found in the words of Julien H. Harvey, Managing Director of the Bureau:

"The National Conservation Bureau is a division of the Association of Casualty and Surety Executives and is maintained by sixty-three stock casualty insurance companies for the primary purpose of helping to reduce accidents in every manner it possibly can. This is only natural, for insurance companies have a direct interest in reducing losses due to accidents. However, any reduction in losses is in turn beneficial to everyone carrying insurance; and as a consequence, aside from any selfish inter-

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High School Curriculum in Safety Education

By LESLIE R. SILVERNALE

A LARGE proportion of secondary schools throughout the country are teaching safety, at least to some degree. This fact is indicated by the results of a study recently published by the National Education Association.[1] Of the 2,786 junior high school teachers from all parts of the country who responded to the questionnaire, 97.5 per cent stated that safety instruction is offered to some extent in their schools. Of the 4,573 senior high school teachers, 94.4 per cent indicated that safety was being taught in their schools.

In many cases, no doubt, the safety instruction being offered is effective. However, whether or not this is the case depends largely upon the competence and interest of classroom teachers and building principals. Less than one teacher in ten reported working under the direction of a supervisor of safety instruction, while 70.1 per cent of the junior high school teachers and 77.1 per cent of the senior high school teachers replied that they received no safety curriculum bulletins or courses of study from local boards of education. Thus, a large proportion of classroom teachers and building principals have received little or no help in the construction of a safety education curriculum. It is fair to assume that safety instruction in secondary schools would be materially improved if teachers were given adequate assistance in this field.

Until comparatively recently schools have depended upon outside sources for most of their curricular materials in safety. This material consisted principally of pamphlets, posters, and motion pictures. These have been distributed, usually free of charge, by insurance companies, the automobile industry, and such organizations as local safety councils and motor clubs. Much of this free material has been of excellent quality. Some of it, on the other hand, has been poor, not so much because of the subject matter included as from the point of view of presentation, since it was not based upon sound educational psychology.

Fortunately, there is beginning to appear safety material prepared by competent authorities specifically for secondary school use. Recent textbooks in such fields as science and social studies include units on the subject, and several textbooks devoted entirely to this field have appeared. A considerable number of city and state courses of study have recently been published or are in the process of preparation. Teachers' colleges and universities are now giving attention to this field. There is every indication that safety instruction is about to take an important place in the secondary school curriculum.

The aim of safety education is, of course, to affect the behavior of children in such a way that they will be fitted to meet the hazards about them without harm to themselves or to others. Since it deals with conduct, the safety curriculum must be written so as to give attention to feelings, emotions, and attitudes because these are the factors which so generally determine conduct.

For years, those interested in safety education have been discussing the merits of positive instruction as against negative instruction. Positive instruction is characterized by the word "do." Negative instruction, on the other hand, is characterized by the word "don't." Positive instruction depends upon the pleasure and satisfaction derived from right conduct for its motivation. For this reason, correct attitudes play an important part. Negative instruction depends upon the fear of punishment

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[1] Research Division, National Education Association. *Safety Education Through Schools.* Research Bulletin, Vol. XVI, No. 5; Washington, D. C.: The Association, November, 1938.

or injury that may result from wrong conduct for its motivation.

The matter of positive versus negative instruction is very important in the secondary school. One of the characteristics of adolescence is the desire for adventure. Restraints rest heavily upon pupils of this age. Therefore if safety is presented to them as a series of "don'ts" it will be distasteful. Fortunately, safety can be presented as essentially positive. Pupils can be led to see that while safety takes something out of life it puts much more into it. It saves us from unsuccessful adventures and assures us that our adventures will succeed. Charles Lindberg and Admiral Byrd are classic examples of men who, through giving great attention to safety, were able to succeed in tremendously adventuresome exploits.

There should be no attempt to take worthwhile adventure out of modern life by those who are interested in accident prevention. One of the great weaknesses of current urban civilization is that so little chance for thrilling adventure remains. Let us strive to provide youth with an adventuresome life which is so necessary if they are to develop into the courageous, resourceful men and women that this country needs today as much as it needed them in the days of the frontier. Let us strive to prepare youth to meet successfully the emergencies of life so that they will be fit and ready for adventure when it arrives.

If safety instruction is really to function among high school pupils they must have the proper attitude toward it. It is easy enough, for example, to teach them the traffic rules that bicycle riders should follow, but if they are to obey the rules habitually it will be necessary to get them to want to do so. They will ride bicycles much more while they are away from the immediate control of home or school than they will while they are under such control. Therefore, if proper habits are to be firmly fixed, children must be properly motivated. They must desire to conduct themselves in a safe way, and this desire must be strong enough to influence their conduct. The formation of proper attitudes is, then, the chief concern of safety education in the secondary school.

Another factor which should guide the curriculum maker in the field of safety education is the actual hazards which pupils of secondary school age face or which they will be called upon to face in the future. For this reason, a comprehensive accident reporting system, covering all types of accidental injuries, is helpful. National as well as local statistics should be considered because we have an extremely mobile population. The city-bred person needs to know something of the hazards of rural life, and the farm boy or girl needs to be prepared to meet the physical hazards of the city. Accidents frequently occur to those who find themselves in a strange environment.

What are the hazards which face young people today? According to statistics compiled by the National Safety Council, in the year 1937 the four leading causes of accidental fatalities among persons from 15 to 24 years of age were as follows: motor vehicle, 52 per cent; drownings, 12 per cent; falls, 8 per cent; and accidents with firearms, 6 per cent.

An increasing number of high school pupils are learning to swim, engaging in athletics and gymnastics, working in school shops, learning to drive automobiles, and engaging in many other worthwhile activities which are potentially dangerous. The hazards involved in these, then, should be included in the safety education curriculum of the secondary school.

While the chief emphasis of any safety education program is naturally upon prevention of injuries, accidents will occur and hence first aid should be included in the curriculum. A knowledge of what to do in case of an emergency requiring first aid not only is necessary to prevent needless suffering and death but it also serves to prevent accidents, since one who knows how serious the consequences of an accident may be is more alert to prevent them.

Not only should the curriculum be concerned with hazards faced by the pupils themselves but it should also include a study of those faced by society in general. Under this heading should be included community fire protection, factory inspection laws, and the like. One of the characteristics of safety instruction on the secondary level should be the creating of a feeling of responsibility for the safety of others and an appreciation of the community-wide accident problem.

Much of the safety instruction included in the curriculum will be taught in connection with other subjects. The athletic coach will naturally teach how to avoid injuries in athletics, the swimming

instructor will assume the responsibility of a program of safety for swimmers, and the industrial arts teacher will include safety in the shop, in the instruction he offers. However, those responsible for the safety curriculum should analyze carefully the various courses of study to see that no significant correlations are omitted. Furthermore, in order to make sure that all pupils receive certain safety instruction that is common to the needs of all, either definite units covering these topics should be placed in a required subject or a separate course should be organized.

One of the most recent developments in the safety education curriculum of the secondary school has been the widespread inclusion of classroom instruction in driver education and to a lesser extent the inclusion of driver training, or actual "behind the wheel" road instruction. It is well known that most motor vehicle accidents are caused by human factors such as wrong attitudes, bad habits, lack of skill, and ignorance. While proper law enforcement is necessary the chief method of attack upon these causes should be education. There are a number of factors which indicate that the secondary school is the logical agency to offer driver education and training. It enrolls pupils who are approaching the legal driving age. That beginning drivers need this type of education is indicated by their bad traffic accident record. At the present time the school is the only agency that is equipped with the proper personnel for offering this instruction.

In most instances it would seem advisable to organize driver education and training as a separate subject. There is sufficient content which is socially worthwhile to warrant a full semester course, and the services of a specially trained teacher are required if pupils are to get the greatest possible good out of the course. The course should include a study of the mental and physical characteristics of persons which affect driving, the responsibilities of drivers and pedestrians, sound driving practices, the obligation of society to improve traffic conditions, and the steps that pupils should take when they are learning to operate an automobile.

Actual road instruction should accompany or follow classroom instruction. The usual method pursued is that which was developed by Amos E. Neyhart, of Pennsylvania State College. This plan calls for the use of a car equipped with two sets of clutch and brake pedals so that the instructor can take control of the car at a moment's notice. Pupils ride with the instructor in groups of four and engage in a series of demonstration and practice lessons.

Conservation Bureau

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est that the companies may have, they feel responsibility to their clients to do all that is humanly possible in this great humanitarian work. Of late years they have accepted an increasing degree of responsibility for accident prevention work, and through the Conservation Bureau their activities in the field of safety have been greatly expanded and intensified in 1938 and will continue to be increased this year."

This article can do no more than hint at the Bureau's diversified program of activities involving, in addition to those mentioned, the promotion of industrial safety codes and procedures, the development of a motor vehicle inspection code, besides the preparation and distribution of safety literature and visual aids. The Bureau carries out this program along three major lines—by assisting member companies in their safety work, by direct activity through Bureau divisions, and by cooperating with recognized agencies in the field, both official and unofficial. In addition to special projects carried on with the American Legion, the American Standards Association, and the American Association of Motor Vehicle Administrators, the Bureau actively collaborates with such national bodies as the Interstate Commerce Commission and other Federal agencies; the National Safety Council, American Automobile Association, Automotive Safety Foundation, Institute of Traffic Engineers, International Association of Chiefs of Police, and a long list of other organizations participating in the safety movement.

Can we educate for safety? Can we make America safer? The National Conservation Bureau believes we can. It points to the records of such cities as Detroit, Michigan; Milwaukee, Wisconsin; Evanston, Illinois; Sacramento, California; Providence, Rhode Island, and other cities, as brilliant demonstrations that the accident disease can be controlled. If this has been accomplished to those cities, it can be accomplished in many other cities throughout the nation.

The Shop Teacher's Part in Safety Education

By EDWARD C. ESTABROOKE

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SCHOOL shops exist for the purpose of acquainting students with and preparing them for industry. It is in the school shop that the great majority of students have their first opportunity to work with hand tools and machines and become acquainted with the materials and processes of the industrial world. It is here that many students receive their first real impression of industrial life, and where their desire to become craftsmen in industry is born. The responsibility of the shop teacher for providing training in the basic skills and knowledges for these future craftsmen is a major one. But, his responsibility does not rest with the development only of manipulative and mental abilities in industrial endeavors. He must also develop in his students desirable appreciations, attitudes and ideals, which, coupled with trade competency, make true craftsmen and valuable contributors to our society. A valuable worker is a safe worker who protects himself and others from the possibility of injury. The attitude which a student develops in the school shop is conditioned largely by the teacher's own attitude and his concern for conducting an adequate program of safety education.

The primary concern of every shop teacher should be the safety of students in his own shop. Proper shop layout, well guarded machines, suitable floors, adequate light and ventilation, and provision for goggles and special clothing, when necessary for physical protection, are of course imperative. Every available mechanical protective device should be installed and used. This precaution, however, can prevent only a small proportion of the accidents that may occur to industrial workers. The human element makes it necessary to depend upon the students to protect themselves beyond the point where mechanical devices can protect them. In order to overcome the human error factor a shop teacher should develop a complete set of safety practices and rules for the use of each hazardous machine and hand tool in his shop. Rules concerning good housekeeping, personal conduct, handling and storing materials and supplies, and the wearing of clothing should also be devised. Rules and regulations as such mean nothing if tucked away in an obscure corner of an instructor's desk. Definite instruction in these safety practices must be given, and the teacher assured that each student knows them and understands why they are necessary. It is strongly advisable to devise tests relating to the safe use of tools and machines and other shop activities, and demand that a satisfactory passing grade be obtained by each student before permission is granted to use them. The subject of occupational health is closely allied to safety, and is due some consideration along with the regular safety instruction. A sick worker can benefit neither himself nor his employer. The shop teacher should by no means confine his safety instruction to the activities of the school shop, for who can better teach students about the effective safety programs being carried on in industry, about safety against fire, safety in the home and safety on the highways?

It has often been said that a person gets out of a thing just as much as he puts into it. Why not then allow the students to play an active part in the safety program by actually participating in their own shop safety organization? Many progressive teachers have encouraged a student safety committee which functions in each shop class. A committee, comprised of from two to four members is selected by the teacher or elected by the class to serve for a certain period of time, usually from two to six weeks. The committee conducts safety inspections in the shop, takes charge of safety posters and bulletin board, recommends changes for the improvement of shop safety, sponsors shop safety contests, gives safety demonstrations, keeps accident records, holds regular meetings, and, in general, supervises the entire safety program under the guidance of the teacher. Another student personnel plan that

is being carried on successfully is the use of a student safety supervisor whose duties are comparable to those of the safety committee and who represents his own group on a joint committee of safety supervisors from other shop classes. This plan is more feasible in shops where the enrollment is limited to approximately fifteen students per class period. In some cases the shop foreman is given the responsibility of acting in the capacity of safety supervisor in addition to his regular duties.

Various practices are followed regarding first-aid for minor injuries received in the school shop. In some schools a first-aid team comprised of one or more members in each shop class is organized to administer treatment in case of minor injuries. Other practices include the following: the teacher treats all minor injuries himself; a member of the safety committee or the safety supervisor attends to all minor injuries under teacher supervision; all injury cases are sent to the school doctor or nurse immediately; injured students are treated in the shop and then sent to the school doctor for a check-up; the gym teacher treats all injuries. It would seem advisable for the shop teacher and safety organization to handle first-aid in the shop without depending upon other agencies in the school system.

One of the most important safety practices, and one for which many shop teachers have not adequately provided, is that of accident recording, reporting and analyzing. Every accident that requires first-aid, whether it be just a slight scratch, cut, bruise, burn or puncture, should be recorded by the shop teacher or some student under his direction. Some school administrators demand that all accidents which require first aid be reported, and a variety of report forms have been devised for this purpose. Others require reports only on accidents which are considered serious by the teachers. Reports in themselves have little significance as such unless they are carefully analyzed for the purpose of eliminating similar accidents in the future. The shop teacher is usually in the best position to do this job. A well planned follow-up program of instruction should succeed each periodical analysis of accident reports to make the procedure effective. Such reports serve as excellent instructional material in the shop. They provide tangible proof that certain accidents have occurred, and, if the data are adequate, including a complete description of the accidents and recommendations for the prevention of re-occurrences, the safety lesson will carry home its message far more forcibly than an impromptu description of a mythical mishap. It is needless to say that every school shop should be equipped with a suitable first-aid kit which need not be expensive. First-aid boxes make excellent student projects in wood shop and serve the purpose as well as an elaborate case purchased at considerable cost to the school.

Safety can be overemphasized in any class, and this fact is particularly applicable to school shops. When boys and girls enter a shop they are usually enthusiastic about getting down to work and "doing" things. However, a student can readily be made to understand that he will not be able to do things with an injured body. Safety education can be made a fascinating study, and the shop teacher who does not make it so neglects his vital responsibility for contributing toward a safer world. Let our slogan be, "Every student a safety-conscious worker."

A Parent's Wish

"I wish the public school to build these things in my son:

"First: Straight thinking. He must face facts as they are, must not warp nor contort them to his own advantage.

"Second: Open his eyes to beauty. Lead him to see a well-turned thought, a beautiful painting; to feel exquisite harmonies—encourage him to prize spiritual values.

"Third: He must respect the abilities—consider the rights of others. Teach him that there are no superiorities save merit, service and achievement.

"Fourth: I want my son informed. Teach him to find out things for himself, and show him where information may be found.

"Fifth: Guide, but do not coerce him in his search to discover that task which will make him happiest in the executing. When he has found this thing which he likes best to do, set him in the way of learning to do it well.

"To the public school I send this son of mine while he is young, fresh, plastic. Let it start him on the ways of thinking, feeling, learning, doing, and I shall feel that it has accomplished gloriously its mission of helping my son live to his fullest the life which nature through me has given him."—From *Delaware School Journal*.

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Selected by H. LOUISE COTTRELL

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★ *H. Louise Cottrell is a member of the staff of the New York University Center for Traffic Safety.*

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Primary Safety Picture Lessons. New York: National Bureau of Casualty and Surety Underwriters.

Three Safety Plays for School Use. Boston: Massachusetts Safety Council. Pp. 1-18. 20c.

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Traffic Safety, Safety Unit, *Community Civics.* Publication No. 25. Akron: Akron Public Schools, 1936. Pp. 14.

Uncle Will Be Careful. Washington, D. C.: American Automobile Association, 1934. Pp. 14. Free.

Veit, Benjamin. *Safety First for Children.* New York: Noble and Noble, 1925. Pp. 26. 65c.

Gentles, Harry W., and Betts, George H. *Habits for Safety.* New York: Bobbs-Merrill Company, 1932. Pp. 228. 67c.

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Fox, Edith. *Roller Bears and Safeway Tribe.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1925. Pp. 257.

Cobb, Walter F. *Chalk Talks on Health and Safety.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1925. Pp. 243.

Brinkerhoff, George L., and Rowe, Celena. *Safety First Stories.* New York: Longmans Green Company, 1928. Pp. 186. 88c.

Carpenter, Frances. *Ourselves and Our City.* New York: American Book Co., 1928. Pp. 296.

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Junior Safety Council Handbook. Chicago, Ill.: Education Division, National Safety Council, 20 North Wacker Drive, 1935. 35c.

Barbour, Ralph Henry. *For Safety.* New York: D. Appleton-Century Company. $1.00.

Boyce, Catherine. *Safe Way Club.* New York: Thomas Nelson and Son, 1938. $1.50.

Munro, Leaf. *Safety Can Be Fun.* New York: Fred A. Stokes Publishing Company, 1938. $1.25.

Sing a Song of Safety. New York: Irving Caesar, 1937. $1.00.

Safety in Pupil Transportation. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, Safety Education Projects. 25c.

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Man and the Motor Car. New York: National Conservation Bureau, 1936. 45c.

Fitzgerald, Hoffman, Bayston. *Drive and Live.* New York: Johnson Publishing Company, 1937. $1.28.

Floherty, John J. *Youth at the Wheel.* New York: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1937. $1.75.

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Hamilton and Thurstone. *Safe Driving.* New York: Doubleday Doran Company.

Sportsmanlike Driving. Washington, D. C.: American Automobile Association, 1935.

Allen, Thomas. *Safe and Sane Use of Highways.* Milwaukee, Wis.: Thomas Hale and Company, 1935.

Steckell, R. B. and L. *Sense and Safety on the Road.* New York: D. Appleton-Century Company. $1.50.

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American Automobile Association, Mills Building, Washington, D. C.

Automobile Manufacturers Association, 366 Madison Avenue, New York City.

General Motors Corporation, Dept. of Public Relations, Detroit, Mich.

Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, Welfare Division, 1 Madison Avenue, New York City.

Travelers Insurance Company, News Bureau, Hartford, Conn.

Chevrolet Motor Company, Educational Service Dept., Detroit, Mich.

American Legion, Americanism Commission, Indianapolis, Ind.

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a. Industrial Arts.

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Keck, Lewis E. *School Shop Accidents and Their Prevention.* Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1933.

Safety First for Vocational Schools. Bulletin, No. 621. University of the State of New York, 1916.

b. Fire Prevention.

Publications of:

National Board of Fire Underwriters, 85 John Street, New York City.

National Fire Protection Association, Boston, Mass.

Crump. *The Boy's Book of Firemen.* New York: Dodd, Mead and Company, 1916. $2.00.

Hough. *The Story of Fire.* New York: Doubleday Doran Company, 1933. $2.00.

c. Home Safety.

Safety for the Household. Washington, D. C.: Circular, No. 397. Bureau of Standards, U. S. Dept. of Commerce. 15c.

Safeguarding Electric Service in the Home. New York: International Association of Electrical Inspectors.

Injuries in the Home and on the Farm. Washington, D. C.: ARC 1023, American Red Cross. 15c.

Accident Prevention in the Home. New York: Metropolitan Life Insurance Company.

Safety in the Home. New York: Good Housekeeping Institute.

d. Recreation.

Lloyd, Deaver, Eastwood. *Safety in Athletics.* Philadelphia, Pa.: W. B. Saunders Company, 1936. $3.00.

Stevens and Phelps. *The Control of Football Injuries.* New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1933.

Publications of the National Recreation Association, New York City.

e. Water Safety.

Life Saving and Water Safety, American Red Cross. Philadelphia, Pa.: P. Blakeston's Son and Company. 65c.

f. First Aid.

First Aid Textbook, American Red Cross. Philadelphia, Pa.: P. Blakeston's Son and Company. 65c.

What to Do in Case of Accident. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Treasury Department, Public Health Service.

7. Tests.

Home Safety Test. National Safe Drivers' Test. National Tests in Safety Education. Tests in Traffic Safety. New York: National Conservation Bureau. $1.00 per 100 copies.

Tests for Drivers. Published by:

Aetna Casualty and Surety Company, Hartford, Conn., 1936.

American Automobile Association, Washington, D. C., 1935.

George Washington University, Washington, D. C.

Iowa State University, Ames, Iowa.

Massachusetts Safety Council, Boston, Mass.

Travelers Insurance Company Hartford, Conn.

8. Visual Aids.

Visual Aids in Safety Education. Chicago, Ill.: Section C. Aids to Course of Study Committees. Education Division, National Safety Council.

Safety Education Through Schools. Research Bulletin, Vol. XVI, No. 5. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, November, 1938. 25c.

The Purposes and Methods Involved in Teacher Rating

By H. EARLE CORREVONT

The Problem

For a long time teachers and administrators have struggled with the problem of teacher rating. Two fundamental questions that are uppermost are: Why should teachers be rated? and, If they are rated, how should they be rated?

Teachers have witnessed ratings being made in some very peculiar ways, one being the basis of percentage—this teacher rates 89 per cent and another 91 per cent. Such distinctions seem discriminating indeed. They are discriminating to the degree that promotion, financial increment, or both may be seriously involved. Yet the administrators themselves admit that, even if the percentage system were adequate, little difference would exist between an 89 per cent and a 91 per cent effective teacher. Can we, then, be surprised at the unfriendly attitude teachers in general take to this administrative device?

Now, how does the administrator feel? An administrator who is required to rate teachers is frequently placed in distasteful situations, too. Many a principal has said that he does not like to rate teachers any more than they like to be rated. One principal relates that he was required by his superintendent to rate half of his teachers B and about half C—only one A was permitted. After the ratings were made and handed over to the superintendent, the principal and teachers were told that those with C ratings were on probation. Imagine, half of a trained and experienced staff on probation! This case may be an extreme one but it is based on fact. Can we be surprised that principals dislike teacher rating?

Why should the rater and the rated be parties to an act which each thoroughly dislikes?

A Statement of Facts

Before any evaluation can be made, it is essential that we consider facts. Some of the most pertinent facts concerning teacher rating are reported herein so that the problem will be more clear-cut. These facts provide us with the materials to which may be added our intuitive judgment. A three-way classification of the facts has been made —the avowed purposes of teacher rating, the existing methods of teacher rating, and some opinions of the value of teacher ratings.

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Avowed purposes. The validity of any cause depends to a large degree upon its purposes. An analysis of those ascribed to teacher rating presents at least 14 reasons for being. The order of listing does not indicate rank or merit. The list portrays only a factual picture of the purposes of teacher rating as described in educational literature.

Teacher Rating:

1. Encourages self-appraisal.
2. It is an administrative and supervisory device for developing the members of the staff.
3. It stimulates the teacher.
4. It improves instruction.
5. It improves the teacher.
6. It provides a standard for the distribution of teachers in a system. (One school should not have mostly poor teachers nor should another have a disproportionate number of good teachers.)
7. It serves as a basis for promotion.
8. It helps to determine salary.
9. It is a guide for dismissal.
10. It assists in the selection of new members for regular staff appointment.
11. It is helpful in fixing the time of retirement.
12. It is a means of measuring the efficiency of teachers.

13. It gives private information to higher administrative officers.
14. It is an aid or guide for the supervisor in his work.

Existing Methods. Now that a citation of the avowed purposes of teacher rating has been made, what are the ways or methods that are being used by the proponents of the plan? Some cities use one plan, others another. Still others use a combination of several. This variation is well to keep in mind because it is possible that no two school systems use the very same procedure. The individuality of the school cities and the individuality of those participating in any plan invalidates any attempt to present a comprehensive picture of existing practices. The most that can be done is an exposition of the basic types of methods found in use. These are:

1. Informal letter reports of principals and supervisors to the superintendent concerning superior and inferior teaching.
2. Informal letter of observation from the principals and supervisors to the teachers concerned.
3. Self-rating schemes.
4. Rating cards covering certain important characteristics such as personal equipment, social equipment, professional equipment, class management, technique of teaching, and results as demonstrated by pupils.
5. Rank order rating in which the teachers of a given building are placed as teacher number 1, 2, 3, 4, etc.—number 1 indicating best.
6. General impression method.
7. Stenographic reports of actual class procedure.
8. Pupil measurement method which utilizes pupil testing to a high degree.
9. Graded descriptive paragraph method which strives to achieve objectivity by presenting an evaluated series of word pictures of teacher types and method types. In using such a scale of descriptions the rater asks, "Which type does this particular teacher represent?"
10. Yes and no type of lists in which a check is given for the possession of certain qualities or negative traits.
11. Professional tests which attempt to appraise the teacher's educational maturity level.
12. Pupil rating of teachers.

Opinions. The existence of opinions may be treated in a factual manner by sampling the reaction of interested groups. A decided polarity of opinion is found concerning the problems of teacher rating. One school of thought believes there should never be such a program or, at least, that it is next to impossible. Witness:

> "Rating is fundamentally wrong, impossible of just and correct application, lowering to the self-respect and dignity of teachers, both to themselves and in the eyes of the parents and childen, entirely unnecessary, a detriment to good pedagogy, and a bar to placing teaching among the professions."[1]

> "The task of rating is as difficult as that which faced Shylock when Portia insisted:
>
> Therefore prepare thee to cut off flesh.
> Shed thou no blood; nor cut thou less nor more
> But just one pound of flesh."[2]

> "As yet a satisfactory rating scale for teachers has not been constructed, though many have been devised and are obtainable on the market."[3]

Then there are those that swing to the other extreme. Their statements are:

> "Despite the claims of certain educational sentimentalists that it is little short of sacrilegious for a supervisor to judge his teachers in relation to their ability to instruct, it is nevertheless a fact that this is one of the very best excuses for his existence if he did not think of teaching terms of efficiency levels."[4]

> "Few logical arguments are advanced against the theory of rating. As a rule the statements are really based upon the defects, dangers, and abuses of rating rather than upon any fundamental flaw in the theory."[5]

> "Such devices have proved valuable for purposes of self-appraisal in assisting principals and supervisors in developing members of their staff."[6]

An Evaluation

After reviewing the previous presentations of the facts to be considered in the problem of teacher rating, what evaluation should be made? Teacher rating purposes are many, its methods are varied, and its practice has developed both friends and foes. Truly, we have in this question a real problem, a problem that will not be viewed by any two people alike—and a problem that should challenge all members of the educational group. Our approach towards the truth in the matter will be

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[1] A. L. Parrott, "Abolishing the Rating of Teachers," *N. E. A. Proceedings*, 1917, p. 1169.
[2] H. B. Alberty and V. T. Thayer, *Supervision of the Secondary School*, 1931, p. 142.
[3] Nelson L. Bossing, *Progressive Methods of Teaching in the Secondary Schools*, 1933, p. 656.
[4] L. D. Coffman, "The Control of Educational Progress through Supervision, *N. E. A. Proceedings*, 1917, p. 189.
[5] William H. Burton, *Supervision and the Improvement of Instruction*, 1922, p. 348.
[6] George D. Strayer, *The Public Schools of Hartford, Connecticut*, 1937, p. 114.

furthered as we share our experiences in observing the application of the different methods in vogue. Perhaps other methods may be found that are more practical.

In any case, it appears that rating cannot be avoided. We shall always have our likes and dislikes. This fundamental principle applies to all of our life activities including teachers and teaching. How could we prevent pupils liking some teachers more than others? How could we prevent parents preferring certain teachers? Would we want to prevent administrators from recognizing superior teaching even if we could? One of the chief functions of an administrator is to lead his staff toward a superior type of work. This can be done only by approving certain techniques and disapproving others, a process of appraisal and rating. Every teacher hired has been rated, every teacher commended has been rated, and every teacher dismissed has been rated. It would be folly to contend that rating is undesirable since it is a necessity. The problem is not "if to rate" but "how to rate."

A Suggested Plan

Even after a careful study of the question, every administrator has to choose the type of rating procedure which he prefers. This preference will to a large degree decide whether the plan will function or not. At least three attitudes can be taken in making this choice. One attitude is the desire of an autocratic administration to check up on teaching efficiency. Certain standards are established by the administration, the yardstick of success or failure is applied to individual teachers, and the conformists are rewarded while those who do not meet these standards are punished by non-promotion, demotion, or dismissal. Another attitude that may be taken by administrators is one typified by subjectivity. No regular procedure of rating is worked out. These superintendents say that they just know when a teacher is doing good work or not. Why have a device or series of devices that are inelastic and artificial? These administrators rate teachers, but in a very subjective way. Then there is a third attitude which the writer prefers, an attitude which recognizes the validity of a rating scheme which is as objective as possible, and at the same time has the support of all those concerned. In order to achieve these two goals and to avoid being autocratic as well as subjective, the following plan has been developed. It is not proposed as the best mode of rating, but rather a way which appears to the writer to be as workable as any found in operation. For clarity the essential steps or elements are listed.

1. A philosophy of education needs to be agreed upon before any teacher rating plan can be adopted. This philosophy should be developed with the co-operation of the teaching force.
2. The purpose of the plan of teacher rating should be to further pupil growth through an improvement in the factors of instruction.
3. The rating plan should be formulated by the administrative and supervisory heads keeping in mind the accepted philosophy.
4. The teacher should share in the evolution of the rating program. Thus, she has an opportunity to understand and appreciate its use more fully.
5. Objectivity should be achieved as nearly as possible. The emphasis should be away from rating the teacher and should be placed more definitely on the teaching process. Two methods that are recommended are the descriptive paragraph rating scales and the informal notes.
6. Both teachers and administrators should have a thorough understanding of the plan and its operation. The actual rating process is but one part of the whole program. There should be a period in which the raters and the rated prepare for what is to take place at the time of rating.
7. After this groundwork is laid, the process of rating should be typified by the recording af actual practice, by conferences concerning practice in which an alignment is made between practice and the philosophy of the system, by agreements as to next steps or change if necessary, and by a reappraisal of growth after further opportunity for adaptation has been allowed.
8. A sufficient number of ratings should be made in written form.
9. A copy of the teacher's individual record should be given to her promptly. There should be no mystery between the rater and the rated about the appraisal, and the person rated should not have to ask for the information.

Merits of the Proposed Plan

The nine suggested elements or steps of the proposed rating plan have at least three primary merits.

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The Riddle as a Test

By ARTHUR C. SELKE

THE riddle has been used as a minor teaching device in both high schools and elementary schools. This pedagogical method was sufficiently useful and distinctive to be recognized in the last two issues of the *North Dakota Course of Study* in three subjects—language, science and geography. This remarkably adaptable device has been used successfully in all grades up to college level. It is not so well known that riddles may be used very effectively in examinations and objective tests.

What is a riddle for classroom purposes? The dictionary lists a "riddle" as an "enigma," "something ambiguous," etc. Schoolroom practices have eliminated all types of methods, so defined, which have little educational value. The type of device which has proved useful for schoolroom needs may be defined as follows: A riddle is a complex problem or question, the answer to which may be deduced from two or more statements or limiting factors, no one of which in itself betrays the answer.

The fact that two or more statements are required before the answer may be obtained is significant, for it distinguishes the riddle from either a problem or a question. The pupil must weigh each portion of the riddle carefully. A one-word answer required from a number of conditioning statements will trap the unwary or uninformed. In carefully wrought riddles, students must exercise a considerable amount of skill in criticism to get the correct answer. Furthermore, the answer is brief in proportion to the content examined, outranking other objective tests in this respect.

The following example is given to show the nature of riddles. "He was a famous general of ancient Rome. He was one of a triumvirate which ruled the nation. After victories over his adversaries in the eastern part of the nation he became the sole ruler of Rome. During his rule he enacted many beneficial laws. After his assassination the empire was destroyed only to be revived again in a few years by an emperor. Who was he?" Answer: Julius Caesar.

The foregoing riddle has several limiting statements. There were many Roman generals, several men on the triumvirates concerned, two of whom became sole rulers of Rome, after eastern victories. The last sentence, dealing with the assassination, gives the clues which distinguish Caesar from Augustus. Pedagogy requires that essential statements alone should be used, when possible.

Most riddles have fewer limiting statements. The following example from geography is more typical: "The country lies in the southern hemisphere. It is a dominion of the British Empire. It is important in the production of gold. Though the country is ruled by whites the majority of population is negroes. What country is it?" Answer: United South Africa.

The next riddle is intentionally faulty. "He wrote 'The Bells' and 'The Raven' and practically originated the detective story. Who was he?" Answer: Edgar Allen Poe.

The authorship of either the poems in itself betrays the answer and the same is true of the rest of the "riddle." It requires no skill in discrimination to answer this. Either this should be revised to make a useful riddle, or else the subject matter should be tested with other types of objective questions.

The chief reason that riddles have not been used more is that they are a relatively new development. Their value for examination purpose is known, apparently, to only a few. The chief difficulty in creating riddles is the failure as yet to recognize the essential guidance that no one statement should reveal the answer. With a little guidance, students in colleges can be taught to make satisfactory riddles.

The potential use of riddles for objective examinations lies not so much in the hope of replacing other types of "questions" as in supplementing the

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existing examinations. In the false-true "question" a hazy knowledge will permit a pupil to pass with a far better score than fifty per cent. A similar criticism may be made concerning those types of questions in which the correct answer is selected from plausible alternates. In the completion "question" mere memory is required unless it be a leading question.

When answering carefully wrought riddles, the pupil is required to use powers of criticism. Riddles should have a place not occupied as yet by other tests. The subject matter tested is great in proportion to the answer. It is not intended to discredit other types, the worth of which is well proven. It seems clear, however, that riddles may fill a need which cannot be duplicated by other tests.

Teacher Rating

(Continued from page 227)

1. They place an emphasis upon the benefits and needs of the child.
2. They provide for a spirit of co-operation.
3. They are based upon a recognition of the facts instead of mere opinion.

Possible Dangers of the Proposed Plan

The plan suggested has possibilities of danger ahead. These dangers are not flaws in the proposal but rather possible misuses of positive purposes. We cannot and should not expect perfection but through knowing the pitfalls we may be able to prevent the defeat of a sound program. Take care that:

1. The plan is not developed too rapidly. A desire to rush a plan into operation may lead to poor administration and consequent misunderstanding and confusion.
2. The plan does not become another task to be done. A need must be felt and the clerical work involved cannot be so great that it discourages use.
3. The plan is not used for other purposes than it is intended. As soon as salary, demotion, and promotion become its primary purposes fear and restraint will be created. Little can be achieved through either of these emotional reactions.

Conclusion

Seeing the necessity of rating, recognizing its values, knowing its methods, constructing a workable plan, analyzing its merits and sources of difficulty are activities which are intensely interesting. The problem is great, but it can be brought down to specifics. Only through doing so and charting a course of action will we be able some day to share a rather finer experience in the evaluation of teaching.

NEW YORK UNIVERSITY CENTER FOR SAFETY EDUCATION

This year the Center has provided fourteen fellowships paying annual stipends of from $600 to $1,200, together with sixteen tuition scholarships. Educators and engineers from sixteen states are now working on advanced degrees of Doctor of Education or Master of Arts, and have selected a variety of problems for theses.

The following is a list of studies already under way:

Howard G. Danford, of Ohio, is working on state and city organization and administration of safety education.

Wayne P. Hughes, of Illinois, is preparing a study of safety procedures in vocational and industrial arts education.

Sara L. Smith, of Georgia, is working on a state course of study.

Haldor N. Engelsen, of the American Red Cross, is making a study of causes of drowning accidents.

William G. Moorhead, Past President of the American Association of Health and Physical Education, is studying the administration and supervision of safety in New Jersey.

Homer R. Allen, of Purdue University, has chosen for his project the state elementary school safety program.

Milton D. Kramer, of Pennsylvania, is working on an illustrated publication on the development of safety.

H. Louise Cottrell, of East Orange, New Jersey, is preparing a new "Guidebook for Safety Education."

Alfred S. Lane, of New York, is working on a photographic story of the safety movement in a joint project with the Society for Curriculum Study, publishers of the Building America series.

Sylvia Marks, of New York City, is preparing and arranging for broadcasts a series of dramatized safety programs.

Irma Gene Nevins is working on a study of the relationship of home safety to the public school instructional program.

Gilbert E. Teal, of New York, is working on a special course for supervisors of commercial fleets.

Keeping Abreast of the Times

Personal and Professional

FLOYD R. ADAMS (Eta 442) has been appointed director of the Teacher Personnel Division in the Minnesota State Education Department.

JOHN A. ANDERSON (Alpha Epsilon 107), registrar of Pasadena Junior College, California, has been elected President of Pacific Coast Association of Collegiate Registrars.

B. L. BALCH, formerly superintendent of the Fayette, Alabama, County schools, is the newly appointed associate State Director of the NYA in Alabama. B. F. HARKINS has succeeded Balch as superintendent in Fayette County.

SLATER BARTLOW (Alpha 167), Indiana State Supervisor of Vocational Rehabilitation, was elected president of the National Rehabilitation Association at the annual convention.

GLENN M. BLAIR (Nu 435) has been appointed as a member of the faculty of the University of Illinois.

C. CONWAY BOATMAN, for eight years president of Sneed Junior College, Boas, Alabama, has resigned to become president of Union College, Kentucky.

WALTER B. CANNON, professor of physiology at Harvard University, is the newly elected president of the American Association for the Advancement of Science.

IVAN E. CHAPMAN, principal of the Western High School, Detroit, was elected president of the National Commercial Teachers Federation, at the annual conference in Chicago, December 30. Other officers include: MARIAN F. TEDENS, vice president; J. EVAN ARMSTRONG, vice-president; and CLAUDE W. WOODSIDE, treasurer.

BERNHARD CHRISTENSEN is the newly inducted president of Augsburg College, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

MRS. GRACE CORRIGAN is the new State Superintendent of Public Instruction in New Mexico. Mrs. Corrigan has been in the office of the State Department for some years.

W. H. COWLEY (Sigma 418) assumed office as president of Hamilton College, Clinton, New York, late in October.

E. M. DRAPER (Nu 115) is acting as professor of secondary education at the University of Pennsylvania during the absence on leave of E. D. GRIZZELL (Tau 45), who will conduct a research project for the American Council on Education.

DUDLEY DOOLITTLE is the new president of the College of Emporia, Emporia, Kansas.

CLARENCE A. DYKSTRA, president of the University of Wisconsin, has been reelected president of the National Municipal League.

Adelphi College, Garden City, New York, has installed PAUL D. EDDY as its new president.

The new president of the University of Dayton, Ohio, is the REV. JOHN A. ELBERT.

LYNN A. EMERSON (Rho 140) has been appointed Youth Administration director at Cornell University in addition to his duties as professor of industrial education.

JOHN A. FAIRLIE is the newly appointed head of the department of political science at the University of Illinois.

MOWAT G. FRASER (Beta 1155) will become dean of Winthrop College, Rock Hill, South Carolina, on January 30.

W. D. FUNKHOUSER has been reelected Secretary-Treasurer of the Conference of Deans of Southern Graduate Schools.

M. L. HARTUNG, of Ohio State University, has been appointed an assistant professor in education at the University of Chicago.

E. L. HENDRICKS (Zeta 4), President Emeritus of Central Missouri Teachers College, Warrensburg, Missouri, died in November.

J. B. HOBDY, Director of Vocational Education in the Alabama State Department, was chosen as vice-president of the American Vocational Association at the St. Louis meeting.

CLIFFORD B. JONES will become the president of Texas Technological College, Lubbock, Texas.

F. G. MACOMBER (Delta 441) has left the Riverside City Schools, California, to join the Department of Education, University of Oregon.

ELLIS L. MANNING has been appointed as supervisor of science instruction in the New York State Department of Education.

DELL R. MATHEWS, an inspector for the Illinois State Department of Education, died on December 10.

GEORGE WILLIAM MCCLELLAND, vice-president of the University of Pennsylvania, will become Provost on July 1, 1939.

ROBERT L. MCLEOD, JR., has been named president of Centre College, Danville, Kentucky.

G. B. NEWTON, principal of the Newton, Ohio, Trade School, has been appointed chairman of the International Committee on Vocational Guidance of the Kiwanis International.

MRS. HORTENSE M. ODLUM has been chosen as general chairman of the fiftieth anniversary campaign of the Child Study Association of America. The Association is seeking funds to carry on its work for the next three years.

DR. MORTON J. OPPENHEIMER, a member of the faculty of the Temple University Medical School, was recently awarded the Phi Delta Kappa Medal for Research at Temple University. A medal is given annually by Alpha Eta Chapter to the graduate in Education for excellence in research. Dr. Oppenheimer, in satisfying requirements for the Master of Education degree, wrote a thesis on "The Importance of the Vestibular Mechanism in Conditioned Bodily Responses."

CLARENCE ELMER PARTCH (Alpha Pi 46), Dean of the School of Education, Rutgers University, was given the fifth annual Award for Distinguished Service to Education by the President of the New Jersey Education Association in November.

JOSIAH H. PENNIMAN, Provost of the University of Pennsylvania since 1923 and President from 1924-26, will retire in June, 1939.

DAVID WILBUR PETERS (Beta 983) was installed as the second president of Virginia State Teachers College in October.

STEPHEN L. PITCHER was elected president of the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers at the annual meeting in December.

JOHN L. PLYLER has been chosen as president of Furman University, Greenville, South Carolina.

J. HARRIS PURKS is the new dean of the College of Arts and Sciences of Emory University, Atlanta, Georgia.

HOMER PRICE RAINEY (Zeta 361) has been chosen as president of the University of Texas.

LLOYD RAMSEYER (Sigma 544) is the new president of Bluffton College, Bluffton, Ohio, succeeding the REV. ARTHUR ROSENBERGER.

Hendricks College, Arkansas, celebrated the 25th anniversary of the presidency of JOHN HUGH REYNOLDS with a program which included the presentation to the College by the Alumni Association of $25,000.

PAYSON SMITH (Alpha Lambda 270) has been announced as the recipient of the annual award of the American Educational Reward, made annually by the Associated Exhibitors of the National Education Association. The presentation will be made at the Cleveland meeting of the American Association of School Administrators.

RALPH F. STREBEL (Beta 1148), associate professor of education, Syracuse University, is the newly elected president of the National Institutional Placement Association.

CHARLES C. TILLINGHAST (Beta 368), head master of Horace Mann School for Boys, New York, has been appointed as a member of the Middle States committee of the Co-operative Study of Secondary School Standards.

JOHN K. TRAYER has been appointed instructor in psychology at Dickson College, Pennsylvania.

GORDON O. VOSS (Eta 725) is the new supervisor of trades and industrial education in the Minnesota State Department of Education.

HERMAN B. WELLS was inaugurated as president of Indiana University on December 1, 1938.

DONALD H. WEST has been appointed a member of the faculty of the Chicago Teachers College.

Meetings and Conferences

FEBRUARY 1, 1939. The American Social Hygiene Association. Annual meeting, Mayflower Hotel, Washington, D. C.

FEBRUARY 1, 1939. National Social Hygiene Day. To be celebrated under the auspices of the National Social Hygiene Association.

FEBRUARY 16-17, 1939. U. S. Broadcast Engineers Second Annual Conference at Columbus, Ohio, under the sponsorship of the Ohio State University.

FEBRUARY 22-25, 1939. Progressive Education Association. Book-Cadillac Hotel, Detroit, Michigan. Joint meetings with the International Council for Exceptional Children are planned.

FEBRUARY 23-24, 1939. Washington, D. C., the Second Convention of the Inter-Library Bibliographical and Library Association, Pan-American Union Building.

FEBRUARY 23-25, 1939. The Seventh Annual Convention of the International Council for Exceptional

Children will be held jointly with the Michigan Conference on the Education of Exceptional Children. Hotel Statler, Detroit, Michigan.

FEBRUARY 22-MARCH 3, 1939. Cleveland, Ohio. Meetings of:

National Association of Principals of Schools for Girls, February 23-25.

National Association of School Secretaries, February 25-26.

Department of Secondary-School Principals, February 25-March 1.

Department of Rural Education of the N. E. A., February 25-March 2.

American Association of School Administrators, February 26-March 2.

National Association of State High School Supervisors and Directors N. E. A., February 28.

National Vocational Guidance Association, February 22-25.

National Association of Deans of Women, February 22-25.

American College Personnel Association, February 22-25.

Personnel Research Federation, February 22-25.

Teachers College Personnel Association, February 22-25.

Western Personnel Service, February 22-25.

FEBRUARY 24-25. Carter Hotel, Cleveland, Ohio. The National Council of the Teachers of Mathematics, annual convention.

MARCH 3-5, 1939. American Association of Junior Colleges, Grand Rapids, Michigan.

MARCH 5-8. Louisville, Kentucky. The Southern Conference for Music Education.

MARCH 9-11. New York City. The annual Columbia Scholastic Press Association Convention.

MARCH 17-18, 1938. The fifteenth annual Junior High Conference of New York University, to be held at the School of Education, Washington Square, New York City.

MARCH 19-23. North Central Music Educators Conference, at Detroit, Michigan.

APRIL 3-6. The American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation will hold its annual convention in San Francisco during the week of April 3-6.

APRIL 10-14. Atlanta, Georgia. The 46th annual convention of the Association for Childhood Education.

APRIL 12-15. San Antonio, Texas. Southwestern Music Educators Conference.

Colleges and Universities

THE COLLEGE OF EDUCATION at Kent State University of Ohio has undergone complete reorganization with the faculty divided into four divisions: kindergarten-primary, elementary, secondary, and training school.

UNDER THE LEADERSHIP of Professor Ralph W. Tyler, new chairman of the Department of Education, University of Chicago, the present plans of the faculty call for a review of each of the major fields of education in terms of long-time planning for the department. The evaluation staff of the eight-year study of the Progressive Education Association has been moved to University of Chicago from Ohio State University.

THE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION at the University of California at Los Angeles is being reorganized to replace the Teachers College, which has been in existence for some time. The organization is being changed to make modern training possible with the smallest amount of administrative difficulty.

RURAL SOCIOLOGISTS of the country have organized the Rural Sociological Society of America. Dwight Sanderson, Cornell University, is president; John H. Kolb, University of Wisconsin, is vice-president; T. Lynn Smith, Louisiana State University, secretary-treasurer.

THE INVESTMENT BANKERS ASSOCIATION has announced an essay contest on the general subject of investment banking. The only restriction of subject is that papers entered contribute to a better public understanding of investment banking. The contest is open to undergraduates in colleges and universities. The cash prizes are $300, $150, and $50. Essays entered in the contest should be sent to Jean C. Witter, President, 45 Montgomery Street, San Francisco, California, before July 1, 1939.

WISCONSIN WILL CELEBRATE the ninetieth anniversary of the founding of the University of Wisconsin on February 6 with a nation-wide radio program. The program will be released at 9:30 p. m. CST over the NBC red network.

TEACHERS COLLEGE OF COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY announces five to seven scholarships in the advanced school of Education open to candidates for the Doctor of Philosophy and Doctor of Education degrees. The basic amount of each scholarship is $1,200 with allowances for wife and family. Ten scholarships of smaller amounts and twenty research and teaching assistantships are also announced. Application blanks will be supplied by the Committee on Fellowships, Teachers College, Columbia University.

GOUCHER COLLEGE, Baltimore, Maryland, celebrated its fiftieth anniversary last fall. The celebration was enhanced by the publication of the plans for a complete new plant where the college will eventually be located.

The School Review and *The Elementary School Journal*, both published by the University of Chicago, have been appearing this year in new format, making the cover much more attractive.

An address made by DEAN WILLIAM F. RUSSELL of Teachers College, Columbia University, before the New York State Convention, American Legion, has been widely reprinted and quoted as a clear presentation of the case for democracy and freedom of speech.

THE UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA has just received the floating laboratory, Velero III, for a number of cruises in the advancement of marine science. The Velero III will be used for cruises by members of the marine science classes of the university.

Public Schools

Finance Trends, a survey of Cook County (not including Chicago) school finances, has been published by the Illinois Education Association, Lake Shore Division. The four parts of the study deal with changes and trends in local assessed valuations, costs of operating townships' treasurers offices, insurance, and the financing of Cook County schools during the depression.

EIGHT DISPLAY BOOTHS at the Cleveland Convention of the American Association of School Administrators have been set aside for the display of materials of particular interest to superintendents. One of these booths will be saved for the display of superintendents' reports. Provisions are being made for the sale of copies of reports, and superintendents entering annual reports in this section are urged to bring a supply for sale at the convention.

OHIO VOTERS THIS YEAR, up to November 8, have balloted on a larger amount of school bond proposals than in any year since 1928, according to Dr. Thomas C. Holy of the Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University.

The total for 312 proposals was $23,351,465, of which $12,764,055 received the required 65 per cent.

During the same period 226 special levies were submitted, 197 of which carried.

Since all but seven of the bond issue proposals were submitted as PWA projects, the federal government furnishing 45 per cent of the cost, the amount approved means that school plant improvements amounting to over $23,000,000 will be made in Ohio as a result of the 1938 bond issues.

THE REGENTS' INQUIRY into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York has published its findings in ten volumes. Some of the major recommendations of the Report are indicated below.

Teachers should be selected on the basis of competition which should include such elements as character, cultural status, teaching ability, education, technical training, experience, scholarship and health. Tenure should be extended to all teachers as soon as possible, but should be made contingent upon continued growth and service. Compulsory retirement and pensions should be provided. Minimum salaries should be increased. Careful selection of candidates to teacher training institutions should be made.

Pre-primary or kindergarten work should be made a part of the regular school system. Elementary education should end at the sixth grade. The elementary program should be revised, integrated and provision made for individual differences. Promotion should be done with regard for the pupil's welfare. Secondary education should extend beyond the twelfth grade, but not in junior colleges. Regent's examinations and diplomas should be discontinued. The secondary program should be revised to include more general education in science, health, human relations, community life, history, mathematics, arts, and basic skills. Library reference, field work and report writing assignments should be improved. Guidance service should be increased. No more public funds should be spent for new colleges or independent professional schools. Increased funds for public education should be provided.

Small districts, small classes, and over-luxurious buildings cause some schools to render less than full value for income received. Redistricting, with provisions for local autonomy, through a state board are recommended.

The reorganization of the State Education Department is recommended. Five divisions, the head of each division to be an associate commissioner, are recommended. The State departmnt is urged to concentrate its efforts on research, broad participation in the working out of problems, and to decentralize the supervisory and service functions.

UNDER THE GUIDANCE and sponsorship of the State Department of Vocational Trade and Industrial Education, and the New Mexico Chapter of the American Petroleum Institute, four high schools in New Mexico are offering again this year several vocational courses of particular value to operators in the oil fields. Last

year 236 men received certificates for completing the seven courses in theory and practice. The schools offering the work are: Hobbs, Jal, Eunice and Monument high schools.

THE CONTENTS OF THE JANUARY, 1939, issue of the *Georgia Education Journal* are devoted to a series of articles dealing with safety education. Many of the articles stress the importance of the co-operation of many agencies in making an effective program of safety education for the school.

The January, 1939, issue of *North Carolina Education* is devoted almost entirely to the subject of safety in the schools.

A JOINT COMMISSION ON LEGISLATION, composed of one representative from each one thousand members of the six large educational organizations in Indiana has been formed. The representative group will serve to coordinate the efforts of the member organizations in legislative activities.

The members of the Florida State Chamber of Commerce, at their annual meeting last month, voted in favor of a nine-month term of school for all of the children of the state, according to the *Journal* of the Florida Education Association.

THE NEBRASKA STATE PLANNING BOARD has under way a survey of education in that state. FRED J. KELLY of the U. S. Office of Education is acting as consultant to the members of the board who are making a complete survey of the whole educational program of the state.

THE CALIFORNIA TEACHERS ASSOCIATION is sponsoring the formation of study groups in the principal population areas of the state in an effort to make the discussion of problems of education a truly democratic process.

THE WASHINGTON EDUCATION ASSOCIATION is actively supporting a state-wide tenure bill which the leaders of the association hope to be able to have passed by the Legislature this year.

THE WISCONSIN EDUCATION ASSOCIATION has just published a bulletin, *School Funds—Where They Come From—Where They Go.* The attractively illustrated booklet is a careful analysis of the schools' support problem in Wisconsin. The costs and income figures over a period of years are compared and analyzed. A comparison is made with the plans in use in other states.

When ordering books from book dealers or publishers, please mention that you read the review printed in THE PHI DELTA KAPPAN and identify yourself as a reader of your fraternity magazine.

Education on Air and Screen

Listeners' Digest, designed to review the material broadcast over the air, makes its bow to the public this month. The reviews will be written by newspaper men and women and will be published monthly.

THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF BROADCASTERS, through Neville Miller, its president, announced on November 25 the appointment of a committee to "recommend procedures leading to self-imposed regulation of American radio and the development of program standards for the broadcasting industry under NAB jurisdiction."

Mr. Miller named the following broadcasters to the committee, representing a cross-section of network and independent radio station operation: Edward Klauber, executive vice-president, Columbia Broadcasting System; Lenox R. Lohr, president, National Broadcasting Company; Theodore Streibert, vice-president, Mutual Broadcasting System; Paul Morency, WTIC, Hartford, Conn.; Edgar L. Bill, president, WMBD, Peoria, Ill.; Ed Craney, KGIR, Butte, Mont.; Neville Miller, president, National Association of Broadcasters, chairman.

The committee held its first meeting in New York, N. Y., December 5. It was to outline its recommendations to the board of directors of the Association at a meeting in Washington, D. C., December 12 and 13.

THE NATIONAL ARCHIVES, Washington, D. C., announce in a report by the Archivist, R. D. W. Connor, that during the year 1938 185,600 feet of film was stored, including the film "The Plow that Broke the Plains" and the Warner Brothers picture, "See America First." In the film category the Archives accept records that are privately produced if they are of historical value. Last year six private donors contributed film material.

Eight fireproof vaults have been installed where each reel is stored in a ventilated container. If the film is of the inflammable nitrate type it is put in a separate insulated compartment.

A survey of the existing piles of government records undertaken since 1935 by the National Archives and just completed shows that there are still scattered in Washington depositories and rooms 17,737,879 running feet (more than 3,000 miles) of motion picture film and 2,346,598 still-picture negatives and 5,495 sound recordings.

THE MUSEUM OF MODERN ART FILM LIBRARY (125 East Forty-sixth Street, New York City) has joined similar non-commercial groups in England, France, and Germany in an association known as the

International Federation of Film Archives. The purpose of the organization is to permit closer collaboration between four members—the National Film Library of London, the Cinematheque Francaise, and the Reichsfilmarchiv of Germany, and the above named American organization—in the collection and use of historical, educational, and artistic films and data, thus increasing the value of results obtained individually. The formation of the Federation was promoted by John E. Abbot, director of the Modern Museum of Art Film Library, during a visit abroad last summer.

EDMUND LAWRENCE DORFMAN (Harvard Law School '36) has founded and is president of the Film Foundation of America, Inc., which has made four film lectures under the unassuming title "Law Film Classics" since it was founded in the summer of 1937. The lectures were delivered by such distinguished law school teachers as Samuel Williston, Dane Professor of Law at Harvard; Joseph Henry Beale, Royall Professor of Law at Harvard, and John Henry Wigmore, dean emeritus of Northwestern University Law School. Professor Felix Frankfurter, recently appointed to the United States Supreme Court by President Roosevelt, contributed the introductions to the lectures on "Jurisdiction for Divorce" and "Consideration."

These pictorial lectures are distributed to universities, bar associations, the American Banking Institute and for convention screenings, at rentals ranging from $10 to $500, according to the rentee's ability to pay. Mr. Dorfman is planning to branch out into other fields of learning—science, philosophy, literature, and medicine—and establish "a living Hall of Fame" of the foremost educators.

SCHOOLS IN SCOTLAND have 306 projectors of various kinds in use. England and Wales, with 41,133 schools (not counting the Public Schools) have only 1,176 projectors. Of the 351 educational authorities in England, Wales, and Scotland 199 favor the use of educational films in their schools but not all of these actually use them.

IN LAKE CONSTANCE and the Kiel Bay on the Baltic Sea successful experiments have been made with a new invention of Dr.-Ing. Rudolf Hoffmann of Munich. Pictures, including snapshots, have been made at a depth of 1,000 feet. In Lake Constance pictures were taken at a depth of over 800 feet, some of them in color. The invention is scheduled to be tested at a depth of 10,000 feet in the Tyrrhenian Sea between Italy, Sardinia, and Sicily.

THE POLISH MINISTRY FOR AGRICULTURE and Agrarian Reform intends to use films to show Polish peasants advanced agricultural processes used in Poland and foreign countries, and to make urban dwellers familiar with work in the rural districts in order that the gap between them, and between producers and consumers be bridged.

EDUCATIONAL FILMS have been used in Budapest, Hungary, for the last two years. During the school year ending June 1938, 555 copies of 101 films were available; two dealing with traffic safety were most in demand. Next year 150 films will be available. The cost of film instruction is borne by contributions from the students, amounting to about 180,000 pengos a year.

Education Abroad

THE UNION OF GERMAN EMIGRANT TEACHERS is an organization made up of former members of the Freielehrergewerkschaft (Independent Teachers' Union) who have been expelled from that organization and from Germany. The main office of the Union is in Paris, but there are groups in Argentina, Sweden, the Netherlands, and in Czechoslovakia.

IN COLOMBIA, between 1932 and 1936, the number of schools has grown 20 per cent and the number of teachers has grown 25 per cent. However, the schools still can accommodate and serve only a few more than one-half of the children of school age. It should be noted that the expenses of education increased from eight million pesos in 1933 to 15 million in 1936, of which more than a half was for primary education. The budget for public instruction represents more than 10 per cent of the general budget of the state.

IN HAITI, a new law has been promulgated for the purpose of developing rural schools. Primary instruction in Haiti is free and obligatory for children from six to fourteen years of age.

THE FIRST REGIONAL CONFERENCE of studies devoted to Latin America, organized by the International Industrial Relations Institute, met in Mexico City from the first to the third of September, 1938.

THE GERMANIFIED STATE, Santa Caterina, Brazil, after the promulgation of laws on naturalization: Up to the present, the state of Santa Caterina represented a veritable fortress of nazism in Brazil. The terror spread by Nazi agents on the German colonists and emigrants was so great that few Germano-Brazilians dared to stand against it. The laws relative to naturalization, decreed by Dictator Vargas, have completely changed the situation. The number of German private schools has been reduced from 350 to 79. A small number of the 610 private schools which existed before have been changed into Brazilian common schools and the rest have been closed.

THE OBJECTIVES that have been assigned to a new movement of students in Brazil, by those who have initiated the movement, are liberation of imprisoned teachers, opening of new schools, organization of technical schools and laboratories, reduction of tuition charges, reduction of the cost of books, participation of students in the administration of the universities, creation of parks for children in the workingmen's neighborhoods, meeting of a congress for the purpose of creating a unified students' organization, and finally, the increase of 10 per cent in the amount in the budget of the state for public instruction.

IN CHILE, A UNITARIAN COMMITTEE, representing the teaching personnel of the various types of instruction, has been created at Santiago. Its task is to solve the problem of teachers' pay.

THE FOURTH INTER-AMERICAN CONFERENCE for Education met in August at Bogota, Colombia, and was a great success.

A FRENCH SCHOOL has been opened in Mexico City, to be privately administered. The French ambassador sponsors it officially. The school uses the Mexican methods of instruction, with special attention to the French language and culture.

A congress has just been opened at the Palace of Fine Arts of Mexico City for the purpose of studying the best means of working against illiteracy.

THE SECOND TEACHERS' CONGRESS has met in Montevideo, Uruguay. Numerous representatives of the various branches of public instruction were present, as well as representatives of organizations that are interested in education. Among the matters discussed were the problem of public education in Uruguay and the betterment of the teacher's outlook. Among the speakers was the poet Carlos Dabat, who declared that the world must make intelligence and reason predominate over brutality and fanaticism.

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See
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Teaching as a Man's Job
Special Issues of The Phi Delta Kappan

Recent Books

Reviewed by C. C. Crawford, University of Southern California

Birge, E. B. *History of Public School Music in the United States.* Philadelphia: Oliver Ditson Company. 1937. Pp. 323. $2.00.

The author of this book is a professor of music at the University of Indiana, and this volume is a new and enlarged edition of a 1928 publication. The plan of treatment is chronological by periods, beginning with the development of the singing school, and coming down through the years with chapters for approximately twenty-year periods of musical development. An interesting feature is the very large number of photographs of leaders who contributed most to music education during their respective periods.

Chancellor, John; Thompkins, M. D., and Medway, H. I. *Helping the Reader toward Self-Education.* Chicago: American Library Association. 1938. Pp. xvi + 111. $1.25.

The movement toward independent study and self-education through libraries gets not only a boost but also a guiding hand from this publication. The three authors are intimately connected with library work and interested in the promotion of independent study. The book gives librarians the help they need for the guidance of readers, for judging readibility of books, and for getting books and readers together in the happiest possible relationship. Incidentally, the book might have been called "The Teaching of Literature" because it is certainly a functional attack upon that subject, even though an approach different from one we usually see under that title.

Cole, Luella. *The Improvement of Reading.* New York: Farrar & Rinehart. 1938. Pp. xii + 338., $1.75.

The author distinguished herself several years ago for her remedial work in the University of Ohio, and is also the author of many books on psychology and education. This one is written from the viewpoint of remedial reading and the diagnostic work basic to it. There are chapters on eyesight, diagnosis, vocabularies, comprehension, reading readiness, non-readers, and the administration of remedial work. She has made full use of experimental studies, objective data, and psychological science in application to practical procedures.

Curti, M. W. *Child Psychology.* New York: Longmans, Green & Co. 1938. Pp. viii + 458. $3.20.

This second edition of a well-known and popular child psychology book begins with hereditary aspects and goes to a description of the child's physical growth, sensory motor development, emotions, mental capacities, learning, acquisition of meanings, behavior problems, and personality growth. There is a happy combination between research data, descriptions of child

behavior, and suggestions toward guidance and treatment of child development.

Evenden, E. S.; Strayer, G. D., and Engelhardt, N. L. *Standards for College Buildings.* New York: Teachers College. 1938. Pp. x + 226. $2.25.

Three recognized authorities on school buildings have done here in the college field what they have already been recognized for contributing to the field of public school buildings specifications. In the introduction they present their score card for college buildings, and in the book they write out the detailed specifications by which the various parts of the score card are to be used. For example, accessibility is rated as thirty-five points in the total one thousand in the original score card, and accessibility is then defined under that head in the text. The elements involved in accessibility are listed and explained in ten short paragraphs. The same is done for such items as environment, landscaping, architectural consistency, foundations, window placements, corridors, office equipment, library workrooms, and many others.

Gallagher, B. G. *American Caste and the Negro College.* New York: Columbia University Press. 1938. Pp. xx + 463. $2.50.

The president of a Negro college in Alabama here analyzes not only the concrete educational problems of Negroes on the college level, but also the basic social structure and sociological conditions which give rise to those problems. He writes with a very dynamic style, with a keen understanding of the situation, and with a praiseworthy willingness to recognize both sides of the situation.

Hart, J. K. *Mind in Transition.* New York: Covici Friede. 1938. Pp. 413.

The nature of the book is suggested by the subtitle "Patterns, Conflicts, and Changes in the Evolution of the Mind." It is a combination of history, philosophy, and psychology in that it traces the evolution of human thought from the earliest beginnings to our present democratic social technology. It is not a book to be skimmed lightly nor forgotten quickly.

Hollington, R. D. *Psychology Serving Religion.* New York: Adingdon Press. 1938. Pp. 247. $2.00.

This book is for church workers what a book in educational psychology would be for teachers. It begins with the development of scientific psychology out of theology and then presents an interpretation of infant and child development, adult psychology, problems in the treatment of maladjusted children, and finally what we might call religious social work, including church clinics, pre-nuptial advice, ministering to the sick, and problems of abnormality.

Levy, F. N. *Art Education in the City of New York.* New York: School Art League of New York. 1938. Pp. 148. $1.75.

The guidance of those who are interested in art in the New York area should be greatly aided by this directory of art schools of all sorts and levels. It is more than a mere directory, however, because it gives a very definite picture of the specific facts of art training offered in each of the high schools, colleges, universities, special art schools, and W.P.A. art classes.

Murray, A. L. *Psychology for Christian Teachers.* New York: Round Table Press, 1938. Pp. x + 245.

This practical book for religious workers and leaders is concerned with religious and psychological problems from babyhood to the adults in the church. It is concerned with why children act as they do, and with means of changing their actions. Interesting chapters are "The Psychology of Newly-Wed Couples," "The Technique of Visitation," and "Psychology in the Sick-room."

Nash, Jay B. *Teachable Moments, A New Approach to Health.* New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. 1938. Pp. xii + 243. $1.50.

The whole point of this book depends on the meaning of a teachable moment. The author defines it as a time when one is in a position to learn quickly and rapidly. He says that four such teachable moments are the times when a child exhibits curiosity, when he feels that a difference makes him conspicuous, when adults are frightened about some condition, and when parents want something better for their children. In other words, when genuine health problems arise there is a receptivity to health instruction. The book is devoted to ways of taking advantage of these teachable moments.

Noble, S. G. *A History of American Education.* New York: Farrar & Rinehart. 1938. Pp. xvi + 440. $2.50.

This new history of education, while chronological in the main, is written around movements and problems. Those movements and problems which were urgent in the early days are taken up first and more recent ones are taken up at the end, but if two separate movements were prominent at the same time, they are treated as two chapters. A few illustrations of these movements were secularization of the curriculum, the crusade for common schools, the rise of native institutions, the advent of new methods.

Ohio State University, University High School *Were We Guinea Pigs?* New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1938. Pp. x + 303.

Fifty-five students in the University High School at Ohio State University wrote this book. Judging by the product, some of us might just as well retire and make way for superior writing talent. These youngsters

have described the educational program under which they worked and graduated, and have decided that although they were guinea pigs for an educational experiment, the experiment was a huge success and they were glad to be in on it. The book tells the story of the school program and the work in the various branches of the curriculum.

Paulsen, F. *Friedrich Paulsen, An Autobiography.* New York: Columbia University Press. 1938. Pp. xii + 514. $3.75.

The great German educator who died in 1908 has told his own story, both personal and professional, in this huge volume. The foreword by Nicholas Murray Butler pays tribute both to the man and to the manner in which he has told his story. Primarily a philosopher, Paulsen turned his interest toward the philosophy of education, somewhat as Dewey did a little later, and like Dewey became a major influence in shaping the education of his country.

Phelps, E. M. *Book and Library Plays.* New York: H. W. Wilson Co. 1938. Pp. 222.

These plays for elementary and high school children are intended to glorify books and their place in human life. The first one is a historical dramatization of the life of the first printer, Gutenberg, who was accused of being a devil because he could turn out books faster than copyists could possibly have written them. Sixteen plays in all are included in the volume.

Powers, F. F., and Corbally, J. E. *How to Study and Like It.* Seattle, Washington: Published by the authors, 1938. Pp. 10. 20c.

This booklet is organized around twelve factors in study. Line drawings, designed to appeal to the high-school or college student add to the attractiveness of the pamphlet.

Ramsey, G. F. *Educational Work in Museums of the United States.* New York: H. W. Wilson Co. 1938. Pp. xiv + 289.

Those who think of museums as collections of freaks for the satisfaction of idle curiosity will be surprised to see what an enormous array of educational activities the museums are carrying on. These include lectures, adult classes, training student teachers, special work with handicapped children, organization of clubs, story hours, field trips, summer camps, lantern slide libraries, motion picture films, radio broadcasts, scientific investigations, and professional training for museum work.

Redding, T. W. *When Home and School Get Together.* New York: Association Press. 1938. Pp. x + 118.

This book is different from the outside in. It is bound in boards and covered with a rotogravure paper including about fifteen photographs of school houses, windmills, bungalows, campus lawns, schoolbooks, and sheep in the meadow. It is equally informal inside with brief articles on examinations, sarcasm, sociability, distasteful subject matter, and dissatisfied teachers.

Richards, I. A. *Interpretation in Teaching.* New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co. 1938. Pp. xxii + 420. $4.00.

"Say, Prof, your sentences skid off our domes." This is what the working men said when the professor was addressing them. A college student of education would have said, "Kindly drop the pedagese and talk to us in plain American." This problem of what words mean, and how to make words mean something to the person who reads or hears of them, is one of the oldest problems of mankind. Volumes of philosophy and linquistics have appeared on the subject. Stuart Chase has recently brought it home to the general reader in the book *The Tyranny of Words,* but words are still our masters, and we still live in bondage to resounding blabs and tinkling syllables. This book, by a British scholar, attempts to get at the roots of meaning, and how to make the communication process communicate. It is heavy reading in spots, but will bear a careful study.

Sandiford, Peter. *Foundations of Educational Psychology.* New York: Longmans, Green & Co. 1938. Pp. xvi + 464. $3.25.

The subtitle "Nature's Gift to Man" indicates the fact that this volume is devoted largely to a presentation of the facts on original human nature or human endowment. Chapters are on heredity, individual differences, foundations of behavior, reflexes, instincts, and emotions, the nature and measurement of mentality, the nature and measurement of personality. The book is extremely well substantiated by statistics, graphs, charts, diagrams, and other forms of scientific data. Extensive quotations and citations of experimental work punctuate the entire treatment.

Schnell, L. H., and Crawford, M. *Clear Thinking, An Approach through Plane Geometry.* New York: Harper & Bros. 1938. Pp. xviii + 442. $1.40.

This is a geometry textbook rather than a book of logic or psychology. Starting with the fact that geometry is on the defensive, the authors have tried to modernize and streamline it by applying it to everyday life and to clear thinking outside of strictly geometric situations. The effort is a noble one, even though not very successful in some instances. Common fallacies in everyday thinking are analyzed and corrected, and the usual geometry theorems are proven, but the connection between the two will not be apparent to every reader.

Schramm, W. L. *The Story Workshop.* Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1938. Pp. x + 458. $1.75.

The book is intended to help ambitious students of English to learn to write good stories. Along with the

writing, it is apparently hoped that they will work in a little story appreciation as a by-product. The plan is to enlist them in an effort to write something, and direct them to good stories by Theodore Dreiser, Ruth Suckow, Ernest Hemingway, and others as examples.

Sheats, Paul H. *Education and the Quest for a Middle Way.* New York: Macmillan Co. 1938. Pp. xiv + 190. $1.25.

Political and economic forces are related to educational issues, such as the equalization of educational opportunity, the use of the schools to build a new social order, the question of academic freedom, the question of vocational versus non-specialized education, and the question of progressive versus traditional methodology. Extremists on both sides of these issues carry on a tug-of-war because they realize that the way these educational problems are settled will determine in the long run the nature of our political and social order. This book tries to point out what is a reasonable middle way between the extremes and what we may do to keep from starving to death between the two haystacks.

Smith, B. O. *Logical Aspects of Educational Measurement.* New York: Columbia University Press. 1938. Pp. x + 182. $2.50.

Here is something to justify you in stopping to think a little about what is back of the measurement devices we use so casually and take for granted so thoroughly. What is the nature of the reality involved in a measurement? Is there any reality that does not correspond to the mathematics? To what extent has educational measurement neglected a factor analysis when such a neglect in physics would have been considered unthinkable?

Smith, G. M. *A Simplified Guide to Statistics.* New York: Farrar & Rinehart. 1938. Pp. x + 70. 60c (paper).

This little pamphlet summarizes briefly the essentials of tabulations, central tendencies, variabilities, normal curves, standard scores, reliability of differences, and correlations. There is a combination of text matter, graphs, and sample computations sufficient to guide the student in ordinary computation. The book would be particularly helpful to students who once had statistics and need a quick way to relearn and review what they once learned and forgot.

Terman, L. M. *Psychological Factors in Marital Happiness.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1938. Pp. x + 105.

This is basically a research report. Heaven knows there has been enough of the other kind of material written on the sex problem, and the need for facts will be granted by all. Terman and his co-workers have devised objective measures of happiness and have determined the relation between happiness so measured and each of a multitude of specific factors in the sex life and marital relationships of men and women. It is definite, tangible, objective, concrete, frank, and statistically valid. Yet it is not so technical but that the layman can read it.

Various. *On Going to College.* A symposium. New York: Oxford University Press. 1938. Pp. 298.

Several professors have combined their efforts to produce this symposium on liberal and cultural education. The preface makes clear that the authors are not interested in the practical affairs of college life, including how to study, diet, sleep, posture, campus activities, how to become a leader, how to choose a life career. They are interested in "liberal and humane education," and each writes a chapter to show how his field helps to do this. There are chapters on foreign languages, history, science, psychology, public speech, religion, and many others.

Watson, G., Cottrell, D. P., and Lloyd-Jones, E. M. *Redirecting Teacher Education.* New York: Teachers College. 1938. Pp. x + 105.

This book is a committee report by three members of the faculty of Teachers College who were asked to recommend a program for the revision of work at that institution. They have considered various phases of the work and have brought in recommendations for objectives, selection and guidance of students, setting up standards, ways and means of getting participation such as interneship in education, the place of research in teacher training, new curriculum areas, and the organization of the total program. There is much in the volume to stimulate the thinking of those who are responsible for teacher training institutions.

Wrightsone, J. W. *Appraisal of Newer Elementary School Practices.* New York: Teachers College. 1938. Pp. xiv + 221.

The previous evaluation of the progressive program by the author in 1935 is enlarged upon and brought up to date by this completely new report. In order that we may know what he is evaluating he gives over half the space of the book to a description of the practices and procedures of the newer school and then closes with a few chapters in which he gives the statistical and graphic data showing what the new practices produce in comparison with the older practices that were appraised under the carefully controlled conditions. In spite of all the jibes and criticisms of the newer education, the facts are unmistakably in its favor.

The book *The Rural Teacher's Work* by I. R. Slacks, which was reviewed in the December issue of THE PHI DELTA KAPPAN, is published by Ginn and Company, instead of by Little, Brown & Co. People intending to order this book will please make the necessary correction in their orders.—C. C. CRAWFORD.

Of Concern to Phi Delta Kappa

DICTIONARY HANDBOOK

BY THE time this news item appears in print the handbook of information and the master list of terms for the Phi Delta Kappa Dictionary of Education will be in mimeographed form. The handbook covers the Dictionary project in terms of purpose, scope, procedure, sample definitions, bibliography on educational terminology, matters of form, etc. The alphabetical list of terms has over 15,000 words.

The workers who have volunteered their services have been grouped according to the designated fields of interest, together with certain additional specialists who will be invited to participate because of their outstanding competence in the areas represented. The plan is to have certain key persons in the various areas of education, such as commercial education, physical and health education, statistical method, educational psychology, history of education, etc., assume responsibility for coordinating the efforts of a considerable number of other workers in the given fields. By the time this progress report reaches the members of Phi Delta Kappa, correspondence will have been initiated with at least some of the cooperating workers.

Interested persons should forward their suggestions and offers of assistance to Carter V. Good, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio.

CONVENTION HEADQUARTERS

THE NATIONAL OFFICERS of Phi Delta Kappa will have convention headquarters at the Cleveland Hotel in Cleveland, Ohio, beginning Sunday, February 26, and continuing through Thursday, March 2. Executive committee sessions will be held in these quarters on Tuesday and Wednesday and as need arises on earlier dates. Members of Phi Delta Kappa are invited to make use of the parlor especially on Sunday and Monday. Meet your friends there. Visit with the members of the executive committee and talk over fraternity affairs.

ANNUAL LUNCHEON

THE ANNUAL LUNCHEON of Phi Delta Kappa which is held at the time and place of the annual meeting of the American Association of School Administrators will be in Cleveland, Ohio, this year. The ballroom of the Statler Hotel has been reserved. This space will accommodate as many as 600 comfortably. It is on the mezzanine floor and can be reached without the delay sometimes experienced when elevators must be used.

The executive committee was very fortunate in securing Superintendent A. J. Stoddard to give the luncheon address. His topic will be "Dramatizing Democracy." President Ira M. Kline will preside.

Tickets will be on sale at the registration desk in the Municipal Auditorium and in space G 17 of the exhibit hall where Phi Delta Kappa will have an exhibit. Tickets may also be secured at Phi Delta Kappa headquarters in the Cleveland Hotel.

As has been the custom for many years, the luncheon will be on Tuesday noon. Some have suggested a change of day to avoid conflicts with other luncheons held on Tuesday and this has been considered. The usual date has been reserved, however, partly because it has become an established tradition and partly because no other date offers any greater advantage in the way of fewer conflicts.

This will be one of the outstanding luncheons of the Association meeting. It is the place to meet your "buddies" in Phi Delta Kappa for the annual round-up. An attendance of 500 to 600 is anticipated, so get in early and have a chat with old friends while you wait for the gong to sound.

INTERIM COMMITTEES

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL which met in Cincinnati, Ohio, a little over a year ago made provision for several committees to study various problems of the fraternity prior to the next meeting of the national council in Chicago next December. These committees have been appointed and are now carrying on their work. For the information of those interested, the names of the chairmen are given. In a later issue, the names of all members of these committees will be given, as well as a statement of the function of the committees.

Dictionary Project: Carter V. Good, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Ritual Committee: Herman Ernst, 60 N. Arlington Ave., East Orange, New Jersey.

Proportional Balloting: C. C. Trillingham, 3667½ S. Grand Ave., Los Angeles, California.

Housing of National Office: Theodore S. Siedle, State Teachers College, California, Pa.

Chapter Activities: Francis F. Powers, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington.

Necrology: Edd B. Wetherow, Superintendent of Schools, LaPorte, Indiana.

Frequency of District Conference and National Council: Fred G. Neel, 219 E. 9th St., Bloomington, Ind.

Guidance Committee: Edwin A. Lee, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

Directory of Campus Chapters

DISTRICT NO. 1.

States: Washington, Oregon, Idaho, Montana.

FRED STETSON, *District Representative*, Professor of Education, University of Oregon, Eugene, Ore.

NU—University of Washington. Francis F. Powers, Secretary, 114 Education Hall, University of Washington, Seattle, Wash.

CHI—University of Oregon. Joseph A. Holaday, Secretary, School of Education, University of Oregon, Eugene, Ore.

ALPHA GAMMA—State College of Washington, Weston A. Niemela, Secretary, Box 247, College Station, Pullman, Wash.

DISTRICT NO. 2.

States: California, Nevada, Arizona, Utah, New Mexico.

L. L. STANDLEY, *District Representative*, Principal, Burbank Junior High School, Berkeley, California.

DELTA—Stanford University. William J. Dusel, Secretary, Box No. 1165, Stanford University, Calif.

LAMBDA—University of California. Neil W. Lamb, Secretary, Haviland Hall, University of California, Berkeley, Calif.

ALPHA EPSILON—University of Southern California. Edwin A. Swanson, Secretary, Box 123, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, Calif.

ALPHA ZETA—University of Arizona. John F. Walker, Secretary, Bin-A, University Station, College of Education, Tucson, Ariz.

ALPHA OMICRON—Claremont Colleges. Herbert H. Tay, Secretary, Harper Hall, Claremont Colleges, Claremont, California.

ALPHA UPSILON—University of Utah. W. Melvin Strong, Secretary, Stewart Training School, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah.

ALPHA CHI—University of California at Los Angeles. W. G. Orr, Jr., Secretary, Dept. of Chemistry, Univ. of California at Los Angeles, 405 Hilgard Ave., W. Los Angeles, Calif.

DISTRICT NO. 3.

States: Kansas, Missouri, Oklahoma, Arkansas, Texas.

WILLARD N. VAN SLYCK, *District Representative*, High School Principal, Topeka, Kan.

GAMMA—University of Missouri. F. Olin Capps, Secretary, University High School, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.

KAPPA—University of Kansas. Reid Hemphill, Secretary, 119 Fraser Hall, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kan.

MU—University of Texas. D. T. Oakes, Secretary, Box No. 1642, University Station, Austin, Tex.

ALPHA ALPHA—University of Oklahoma. F. F. Gaither, Secretary, Box 213, Faculty Exchange, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Okla.

ALPHA DELTA—Kansas State College. B. H. Fleenor, Secretary, Department of Education, Kansas State College, Manhattan, Kan.

DISTRICT NO. 4.

States: Wyoming, Colorado, North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, Iowa, Minnesota.

J. V. BREITWIESER, *District Representative*, University of North Dakota, Grand Forks, N. D.

EPSILON—University of Iowa. William Maucker, Secretary, College of Education, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Ia.

ETA—University of Minnesota. Philip Schlessinger, Secretary, Room 11, Library, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.

OMICRON—University of Nebraska. Benjamin E. Ogden, Secretary, Room 358, State House, Lincoln, Neb.

ALPHA THETA—University of North Dakota. Alfred S. Nebring, Secretary, Box No. 546, University Station, Grand Forks, N. D.

ALPHA MU—Colorado State College of Education. Van Harvey English, Secretary, Colorado State College of Education, Greeley, Colo.

ALPHA SIGMA—University of Denver. Newell B. Walters, Secretary, 2045 South Clarkson St., Denver, Colo.

DISTRICT NO. 5.

States: Michigan, Illinois, Wisconsin, Indiana, Ohio, West Virginia, Kentucky.

T. C. HOLY, *District Representative*, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

ALPHA—Indiana University. Glen D. Barks, Secretary, Box 313, Union Building, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.

ZETA—University of Chicago. Robert D. Smink, Secretary, Graduate Education Building, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

PI—University of Illinois. G. C. Kettelkamp, Secretary, 102 University High School, Urbana, Ill.

SIGMA—Ohio State University. Merle R. Sumption, Secretary, Education Building, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

UPSILON—Northwestern University. T. Earl Tilley, Secretary, School of Education, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.

PHI—University of Wisconsin. George L. Fahey, Secretary, Box 18, Bascom Hall, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.

OMEGA—University of Michigan. Malcolm J. Williams, 4007 University High School, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.

ALPHA IOTA—University of Cincinnati. Louis G. Bosh, Secretary, 3619 Wabash Avenue, Cincinnati, Ohio.

ALPHA NU—University of Kentucky. W. Gayle Starnes, Secretary, School of Education, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Ky.

ALPHA OMEGA—Wayne University. A. L. Small, Secretary, 14565 Greenview, Detroit, Mich.

DISTRICT NO. 6.

States: Maine, Vermont, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, Connecticut, District of Columbia.

MARVIN E. PORCH, *District Representative*, Superintendent of Schools, Gloucester City, New Jersey.

BETA—Columbia University. Nickolaus L. Engelhardt, Jr., Secretary, Box 113, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

THETA—Cornell University. Ray A. Murray, Secretary, 202 Stone Hall, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.

IOTA—Harvard University. Robert L. McCaul, Secretary, 6 Lawrence Hall, Kirkland Street, Cambridge, Mass.

XI—University of Pittsburgh. C. M. Long, Secretary, 210 State Hall, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa.

RHO—New York University. Francis H. Achard, Secretary, Room 56, Student Activities Building, New York University, Washington Square East, New York, N. Y.

TAU—University of Pennsylvania. George E. Hill, Secretary, Room 100, Bennett Hall, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.

ALPHA ETA—Temple University. Ross L. Neagley, Secretary, Box 141, Temple University, Philadelphia, Pa.

ALPHA LAMBDA—Boston University. Arthur C. Jones, Secretary, School of Education, Boston University, 84 Exeter Street, Boston, Mass.

ALPHA PI—Rutgers University. Jay H. S. Church, Secretary, School of Education, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, N. J.

ALPHA RHO—Johns Hopkins University. Edwin Stein, Secretary, 3 E. 25th Street, Baltimore, Md.

ALPHA TAU—Pennsylvania State College. H. C. Smith, Secretary, 402 Frazier Street, State College, Pa.

ALPHA PHI—Syracuse University. James J. Hunter, Secretary, School of Education, Syracuse University, Syracuse, N. Y.

ALPHA PSI—University of Buffalo. Norton W. Ruth, Secretary, School of Education, University of Buffalo, 3135 Main Street, Buffalo, N. Y.

DISTRICT NO. 7.

States: Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Louisiana, Mississippi, Georgia, Alabama, Florida.

ULLIN W. LEAVELL, *District Representative*, Professor of Education, Peabody College, Nashville, Tenn.

PSI—Peabody College. Ralph J. Andrews, Secretary, Peabody College, Nashville, Tenn.

ALPHA BETA—University of Virginia. H. G. Acker, Secretary, Room D., Peabody Hall, University of Virginia, University, Va.

ALPHA KAPPA—University of Tennessee. J. J. Fuller, Secretary, Box 4226, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tenn.

ALPHA XI—University of Alabama. C. E. Williams, Secretary, University of Alabama, University, Ala.

BETA ALPHA—Louisiana State University. J. O. Pettiss, Secretary, c/o Junior Division, Louisiana State University, University, La.

Directory of Field Chapters

DISTRICT NO. 1.

States: Washington, Oregon, Idaho, Montana.

Sigma—Portland, Oregon
Gibson Bowles, Secretary, 6006 N. Haight St., Portland, Ore.

Alpha Beta—Tacoma, Washington
Philip E. Hague, Secretary, Pacific Lutheran College, Parkland, Wash.

DISTRICT NO. 2.

States: California, Nevada, Arizona, Utah, New Mexico.

Alpha—San Francisco, California
Rex H. Turner, Secretary, 3606 Brighton Ave., Oakland, Calif.

Delta—Fresno, California
Lars Barstad, Secretary, 1445 Palm Ave., Fresno, Calif.

Epsilon—Los Angeles, California
Elmer C. Sandmeyer, Secretary, 421 24th St., Santa Monica, Calif.

Eta—Santa Barbara, California
Norvell R. Dice, Secretary, 723 E. Cook St., Santa Maria, Calif.

Xi—Sacramento, California
Howbert Bonnett, Secretary, Sacramento Junior College, Sacramento, Calif.

Tau—Salt Lake City, Utah
Reuben D. Law, Secretary, Brigham Young University, Provo, Utah.

Omega—San Diego, California
H. Horton Blair, Secretary, 3776 Front St., San Diego, Calif.

DISTRICT NO. 3.

States: Kansas, Missouri, Oklahoma, Arkansas, Texas.

Beta—St. Louis, Missouri
E. R. Adams, Secretary, Principal, High School, Maplewood, Mo.

Gamma—State of Kansas
Perdue Graves, Secretary, Topeka High School, Topeka, Kans.

Theta—Kansas City, Missouri
George R. Powell, Secretary, 706 E. 55th St., Kansas City, Mo.

Kappa—Warrensburg, Missouri
A. C. Moreland, Secretary, State Teachers College, Warrensburg, Mo.

Omicron—Kirksville, Missouri
Ben W. Leib, Secretary, 901 S. Florence, Kirksville, Mo.

Pi—San Antonio, Texas
H. S. von Roeder, Secretary, University of San Antonio, San Antonio, Tex.

Rho—Pittsburg, Kansas
Ralph A. Fritz, Secretary, Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, Kans.

Phi—Tulsa, Oklahoma
Earl C. Denney, Secretary, 1502 S. Troost Avenue, Tulsa, Okla.

Alpha Alpha—Houston, Texas
C. J. Nussle, Secretary, 1810 Courtland, Houston, Tex.

DISTRICT NO. 4.

States: Wyoming, Colorado, North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, Iowa, Minnesota.

Iota—State of South Dakota
T. M. Risk, Secretary, Vermillion, S. D.

Lambda—State of Colorado
George A. Irvin, Secretary, State College of Education, Greeley, Colo.

Psi—Omaha, Nebraska
Carl W. Helmstadter, Secretary, Registrar, Municipal University of Omaha, Omaha, Nebr.

DISTRICT NO. 5.

States: Michigan, Illinois, Wisconsin, Indiana, Ohio, West Virginia, Kentucky.

Zeta—Detroit, Michigan
R. R. Jared, Secretary, Cass Technical High School, 2421 Second Ave., Detroit, Mich.

Mu—Muncie, Indiana
Vernal H. Carmichael, Secretary, Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Ind.

Nu—Chicago, Illinois
W. C. Krathwohl, Secretary, Armour Institute of Technology, Federal St., Chicago, Ill.

Upsilon—Milwaukee, Wisconsin
Arnold Vieth, Secretary, 3146 N. 42nd St., Milwaukee, Wis.

Chi—Terre Haute, Indiana
Clarence M. Morgan, Secretary, 2626 N. Ninth St., Terre Haute, Ind.

Alpha Gamma—Kalamazoo, Michigan
George A. Kirby, Secretary, State Teachers College, Kalamazoo, Mich.

Alpha Delta—South Bend, Indiana
Glen B. Sargent, Secretary, Assistant to Superintendent of Schools, South Bend, Ind.

Alpha Epsilon—Hammond, Indiana
R. R. Myers, Secretary, 1215 Beacon St., East Chicago, Ind.

Alpha Zeta—Evansville, Indiana
Fred Wilder, Secretary, Patoka, Ind.

Alpha Eta—Indianapolis, Indiana
Paul Seehausen, Secretary, 744 N. DeQuincey St., Indianapolis, Ind.

Alpha Theta—Normal-Bloomington, Illinois
P. C. Kurtz, Secretary, Bloomington High School, Bloomington, Ill.

Alpha Kappa—Appleton, Wisconsin
Guy J. Barlow, Secretary, 215 E. Roosevelt Street, Appleton, Wis.

DISTRICT NO. 6.

States: Maine, Vermont, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, Connecticut, District of Columbia.

No Field Chapters in this District.

DISTRICT NO. 7.

States: Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Louisiana, Mississippi, Georgia, Alabama, Florida.

Alpha Iota—Jackson, Mississippi
E. F. Puckett, Secretary, Superintendent of Schools, Crystal Springs, Miss.

PHI DELTA KAPPA LUNCHEON—CLEVELAND
AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

Tuesday—February 28, 1939—12:00 o'Clock

Speaker: Superintendent A. J. Stoddard
Subject: Dramatizing Democracy
Place: The Statler Hotel, Ballroom on Mezzanine Floor
Price: $1.00 per plate. Buy your tickets early
Space: Adequate to accommodate 600
Adjournment: In time for afternoon meetings
In charge of luncheon: Paul M. Cook, Cleveland Hotel